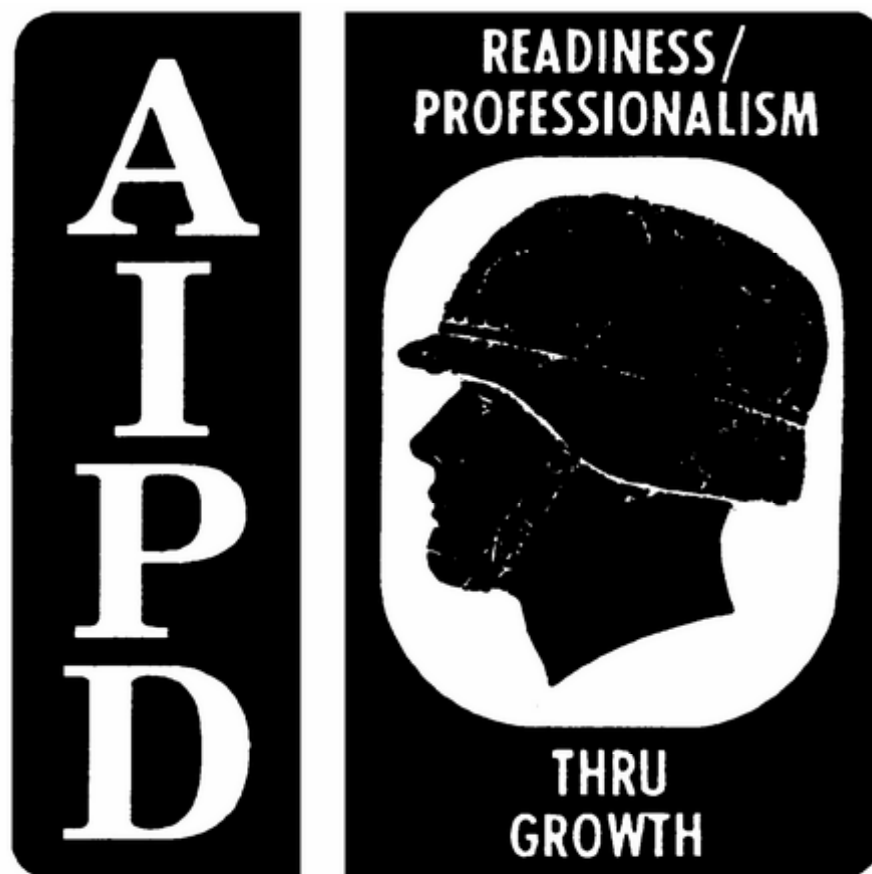

CONSTRUCTION PRINT READING



**THE ARMY INSTITUTE FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
ARMY CORRESPONDENCE COURSE PROGRAM**

INTRODUCTION

PURPOSE OF SUBCOURSE

The Army's scientific advancement places an ever-increasing demand on the technical capabilities of its personnel. The technical know-how of greater numbers of troops must be improved through training. Each individual is obligated to keep abreast of this progress. Construction print reading is a key skill for technical students. Fortunately, a formal education is not essential for achieving proficiency in this important subject; the study of correspondence courses such as this can provide the essential skills.

COURSE CONTENT

This subcourse is designed to include all printed material necessary for the subcourse in this single booklet.

The subcourse consists of five lessons and an examination as follows:

- Lesson 1. Principles and Methods.
 2. Architectural Drawings.
 3. Utilities Drawings.
 4. Heating, Air-Conditioning, and Refrigeration Drawings.
 5. Bills of Materials.

Examination.

Ten credit hours are allowed for this subcourse.

HOW TO STUDY

The format of this subcourse is designed to facilitate student self-pacing and eliminates the necessity of submitting each lesson for grading. Each lesson consists of a text study assignment, review questions and answers, and a number of self test exercises based on the lesson objectives intended to test your comprehension of that lesson. After completing study of the lesson, you should answer the self test questions in the space provided, then check against the correct answers. A comparison of your answers with those given by the U.S. Army Engineer School (USAES) will indicate your knowledge and understanding of the material presented.

*** * * IMPORTANT NOTICE * * ***

**THE PASSING SCORE FOR ALL ACCP MATERIAL IS NOW 70%
PLEASE DISREGARD ALL REFERENCES TO THE 75% REQUIREMENT.**

LESSON 1

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

TEXT ASSIGNMENT.....Attached Memorandum.

LESSON OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this lesson n Principles and Methods, you should be able to accomplish the following in the indicated topic areas:

1. **Line Conventions.** Interpret the established line conventions and symbols used on engineering drawings.
2. **Projections.** Explain the principles of orthographic projections, perspective drawings, and isometric projections.
3. **Orthographic Drawings.** Describe the fundamentals of orthographic drawings, and how they are used to construct objects.
4. **Special Views.** List and describe the various special views used to supplement an orthographic drawing, including sections and auxiliaries.
5. **Reproduction of Construction Prints.** List and explain the different methods used to reproduce construction prints.
6. **Construction Print Format.** Describe the format of a construction print.
7. **Fundamentals of Interpretation.** Interpret simple orthographic drawings by relating them to the isometric views of the objects.

ATTACHED MEMORANDUM

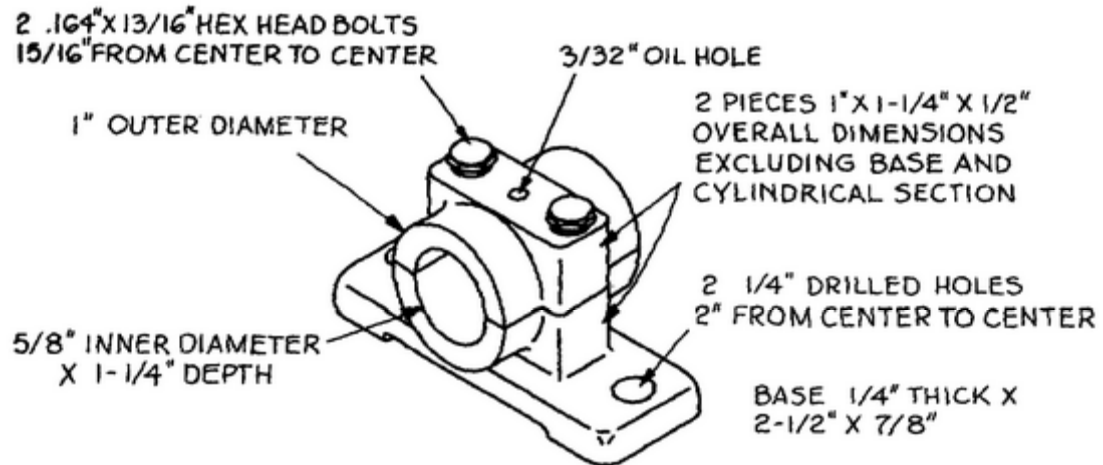
Section I Meaning of Lines

1-1. DRAWINGS

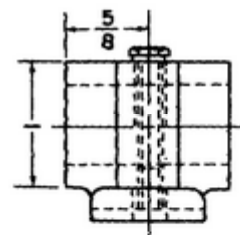
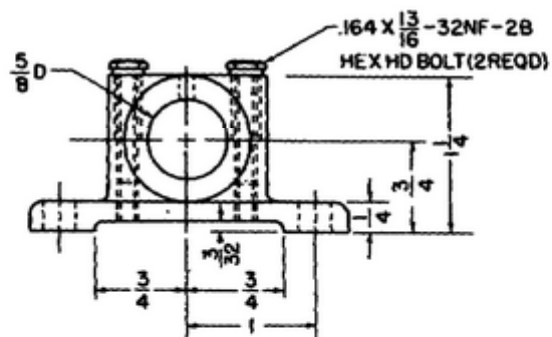
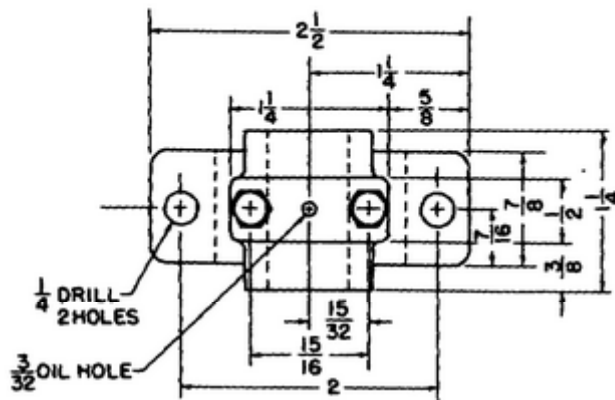
a. A picture is worth a thousand words. Man has used pictures as a means of communication for many years. It would be almost impossible for an engineer or an inventor to describe the size and shape of a simple object without a drawing of some kind. For example, if an engineer designed a simple object such as that shown in the engineer's sketch in figure 1-1 it would be difficult to convey his idea to the person who is to fabricate the object without a drawing to show the shape, size, and location of the

holes. A working drawing of the object is also shown in figure 1-1.

b. Drawing or sketching is the universal language used by engineers, technicians, and skilled craftsmen. Whether this drawing is made freehand or by the use of drawing instruments (mechanical drawing), it is needed to convey all the necessary information to the individual who will fabricate and assemble the object whether it be a building, ship, aircraft, or mechanical device.



① ENGINEER'S SKETCH



② WORKING DRAWING

Figure 1-1. Engineer's sketch compared to working drawing.

1-2. LINE CONVENTIONS

In order to include all the necessary information on a drawing in a meaningful manner, different types and weights of lines are used to represent the features of the object. The meaning of a line with certain characteristics has been standardized, and will be the same on any drawing. These line conventions must be understood in order to read drawings. The line conventions most often encountered in construction prints are described below and shown in figure 1-2. Application of these line conventions are demonstrated in figure 1-3.

a. Visible Lines. A heavyweight unbroken line is used for the primary feature of a drawing. For drawings of objects, this line convention represents the edges, the intersection of two surfaces, or the surface limit that is visible from the viewing angle of the drawing. This line is often called the outline.

b. Hidden Lines. A medium weight line of evenly spaced short dashes represents an edge, the intersection of two surfaces, or the surface limit which is not visible from the viewing angle of the drawing.

c. Center Lines. A thin (light) line composed of alternate long and short dashes of consistent length is called a center line. It is used to signify the center of a circle or arc and to divide an object into equal or symmetrical parts.

d. Dimension Lines. A solid continuous line terminating in arrowheads at each end. Dimension lines are broken only to permit writing in dimension. On construction drawings the dimension lines are unbroken. The points of the arrowheads touch the extension lines which mark the limits of the dimension. The dimension is expressed in feet and inches on architectural drawings and in feet and decimal fraction of a foot on engineering drawings.

e. Extension Lines. Extension line is a thin (light) unbroken line that is used to indicate the extent of the dimension lines. The extension line extends the visible lines of an object when it is not

convenient to draw a dimension line directly between the visible lines. There is always a small space between the extension line and the visible line.

f. Leaders. A leader is a thin (light) line terminated with an arrowhead that is used to indicate the part or feature to which a number, note, or other information refers.

g. Phantom Lines. A medium weight line made of long dashes broken by two short dashes is called a phantom line and indicates one of three things: the relative position of an absent part, an alternative position of a part, or repeated detail which is not drawn.

h. Stitch Lines. A medium line made of short dashes evenly spaced and labeled used to indicate stitching or sewing.

i. Break Lines. A thin (light) line interrupted by a z-shaped symbol. The break line indicates that the object has been shortened to save space on the drawing. The true length is indicated by the dimension specified. The short break line convention varies with shape and material, figure 1-4, and indicates that part of the object has been cut away to show section detail or hidden features.

j. Cutting Plane Lines. A pair of short, heavy lines with arrowheads projected at 90 degrees indicates the cutting plane when a drawing includes a section view. Letters (AA, BB, etc.) are usually placed at the arrowheads to identify the section view. The arrowheads show the viewing direction of the section view. Where necessary, the section lines may be connected by a line of short, heavy dashes indicating the exact path of the cutting plane.

k. Section Lines. When a drawing includes a section, the surface or surfaces which are in the cutting plane are indicated by section lines. When the object sectioned is all one material, the section lines are usually closely spaced parallel lines of medium thickness. Where different materials are involved, different section conventions are used to distinguish between them.


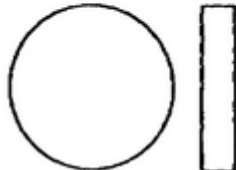

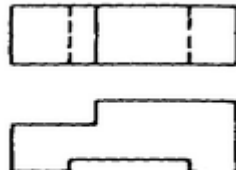

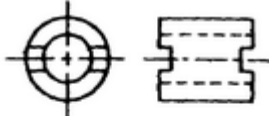

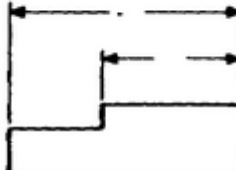

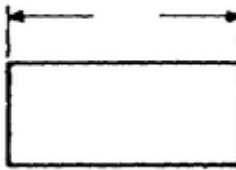
LINE CONVENTIONS			
NAME	CONVENTION	DESCRIPTION AND APPLICATION	EXAMPLE
VISIBLE LINES		HEAVY UNBROKEN LINES USED TO INDICATE VISIBLE EDGES OF AN OBJECT	
HIDDEN LINES		MEDIUM LINES WITH SHORT EVENLY SPACED DASHES. USED TO INDICATE CONCEALED EDGES	
CENTER LINES		THIN LINES MADE UP OF LONG AND SHORT DASHES ALTERNATELY SPACED AND CONSISTENT IN LENGTH USED TO INDICATE SYMMETRY ABOUT AN AXIS AND LOCATION OF CENTERS	
DIMENSION LINES		THIN LINES TERMINATED WITH ARROWHEADS AT EACH END USED TO INDICATE DISTANCE MEASURED	
EXTENSION LINES		THIN UNBROKEN LINES USED TO INDICATE EXTENT OF DIMENSIONS	

Figure 1-2. Line conventions.


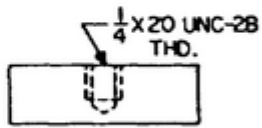

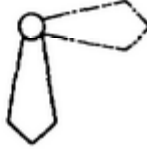

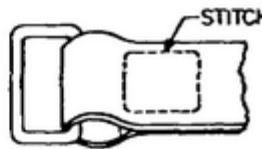

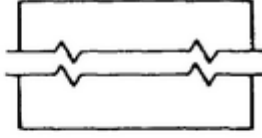

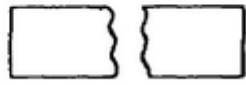
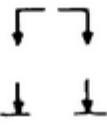
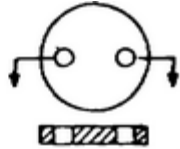

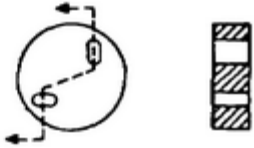
LINE CONVENTIONS			
NAME	CONVENTION	DESCRIPTION AND APPLICATION	EXAMPLE
LEADER		THIN LINE TERMINATED WITH ARROW-HEAD OR DOT AT ONE END USED TO INDICATE A PART, DIMENSION OR OTHER REFERENCE	
PHANTOM OR DATUM LINE		MEDIUM SERIES OF ONE LONG DASH AND TWO SHORT DASHES EVENLY SPACED ENDING WITH LONG DASH USED TO INDICATE: ALTERNATE POSITION OF PARTS, REPEATED DETAIL OR TO INDICATE A DATUM PLANE	
STITCH LINE		MEDIUM LINE OF SHORT DASHES EVENLY SPACED AND LABELED USED TO INDICATE STITCHING OR SEWING	
BREAK (LONG)	 (WOOD)	THIN SOLID RULED LINE WITH FREE-HAND ZIG-ZAGS USED TO REDUCE SIZE OF DRAWING REQUIRED TO DELINEATE OBJECT AND REDUCE DETAIL	
BREAK (SHORT)		THICK SOLID FREE-HAND LINES USED TO INDICATE A SHORT BREAK	
CUTTING OR VIEWING PLANE VIEWING PLANE OPTIONAL		THICK SOLID LINES WITH ARROWHEAD TO INDICATE DIRECTION IN WHICH SECTION OR PLANE IS VIEWED OR TAKEN	
CUTTING PLANE FOR COMPLEX OR OFFSET VIEWS		THICK SHORT DASHES USED TO SHOW OFFSET WITH ARROW-HEADS TO SHOW DIRECTION VIEWED	

Figure 1-2. Continued.

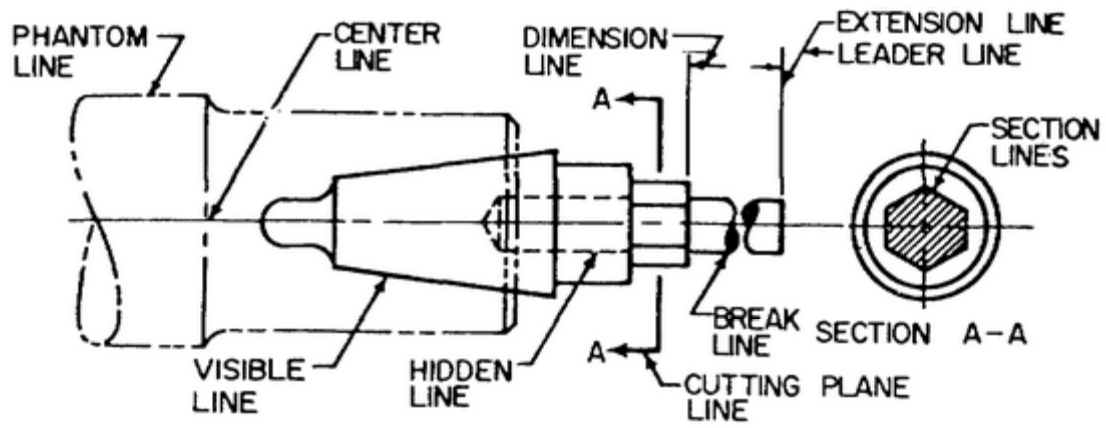


Figure 1-3. Application of line conventions.

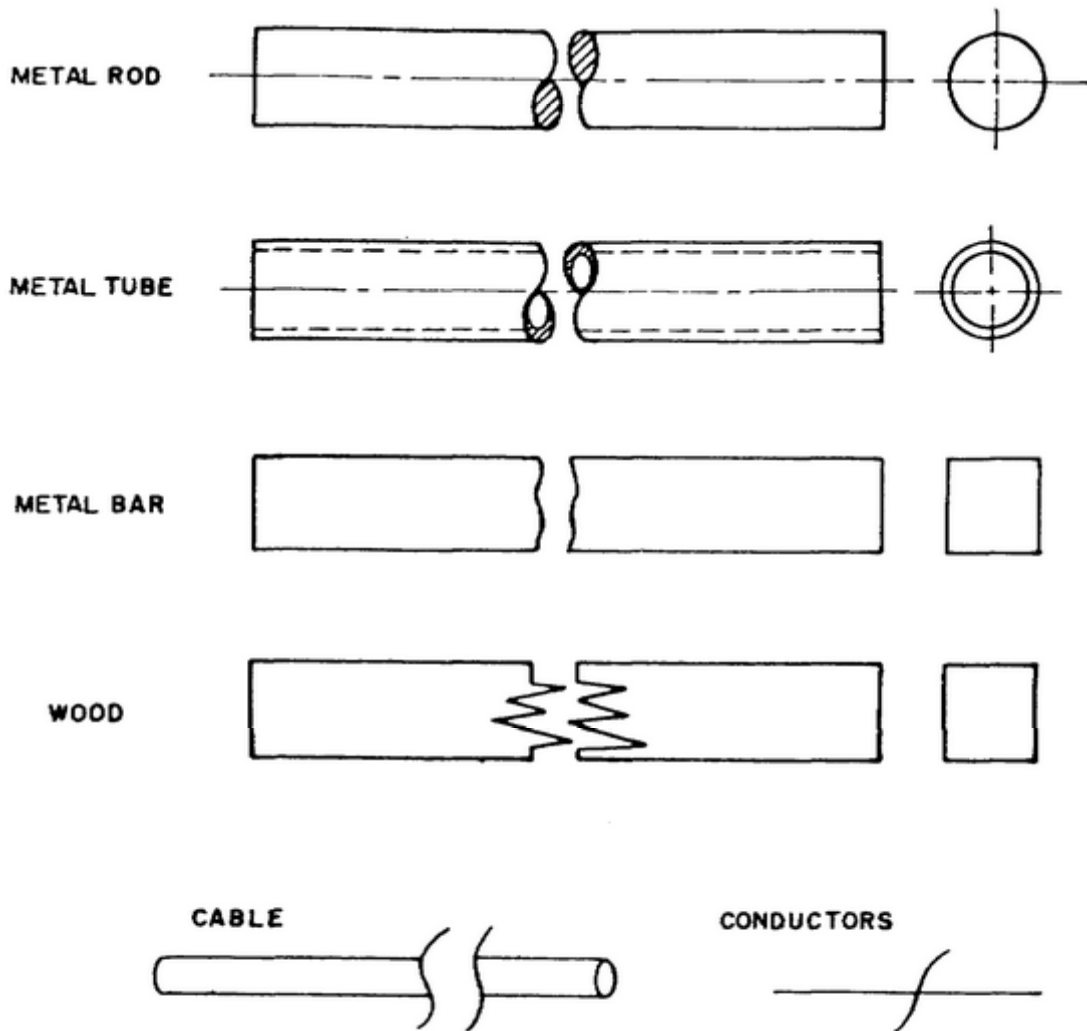


Figure 1-4. Short break conventions.

REVIEW QUESTION 1

What type of line is used to represent concealed features such as an edge, the intersection of two surfaces, or a surface limit of an object not visible from a certain viewing angle? (para 1-2,b) (fig 1-2)

REVIEW QUESTION 2

When it is not convenient to draw a dimension line directly between the visible lines of an object, it becomes necessary to indicate the extent of the dimension lines by extending the visible lines. What type of line is used to extend the visible lines? (para 1-2,e)(fig 1-2)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 1

Concealed features are shown by using the hidden line convention which is a medium line with short evenly spaced dashes. (para 1-2,b)(fig 1-2)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 2

An extension line is a thin unbroken line which is used to extend visible lines. (para 1-2,e) (fig 1-2)

Section II. Projections, Views, and Dimensions

1-3. INTRODUCTION

In learning to read a construction print, you must develop the ability to visualize the object, figure 1-5. This is done by learning to properly interpret the various types of lines, dimensions, sections, details, symbols, and other media that are used to describe the object or parts of an object on a construction print.

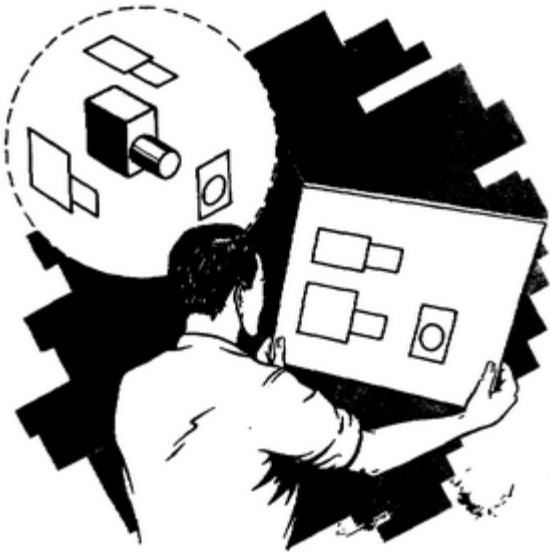


Figure 1-5. Visualizing from a print.

1-4. PROJECTIONS

An object can be viewed and therefore drawn from an infinite number of positions. Some views are easier to draw and interpret than others. It is common to present an object on a drawing as an orthographic projection or as a pictorial drawing. In an orthographic projection, the object is presented as

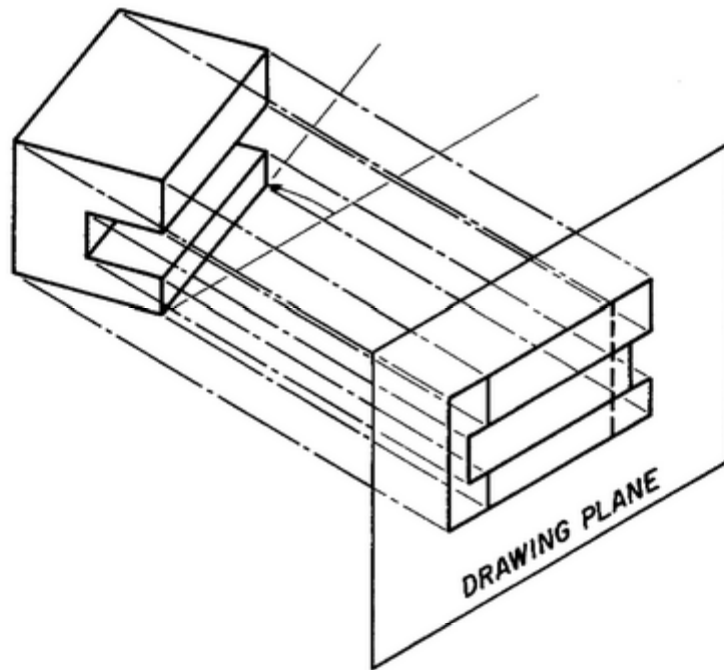
if it were viewed through a transparent drawing plan from an infinite distance (fig 1-6). An orthographic projection is made by projecting each point on the object perpendicular to the drawing plane. A pictorial drawing, such as the perspective projection in figure 1-6, presents the object as it would appear to the eye.

a. Orthographic Projection. Almost all drawings intended for production or construction are drawn by orthographic projection.

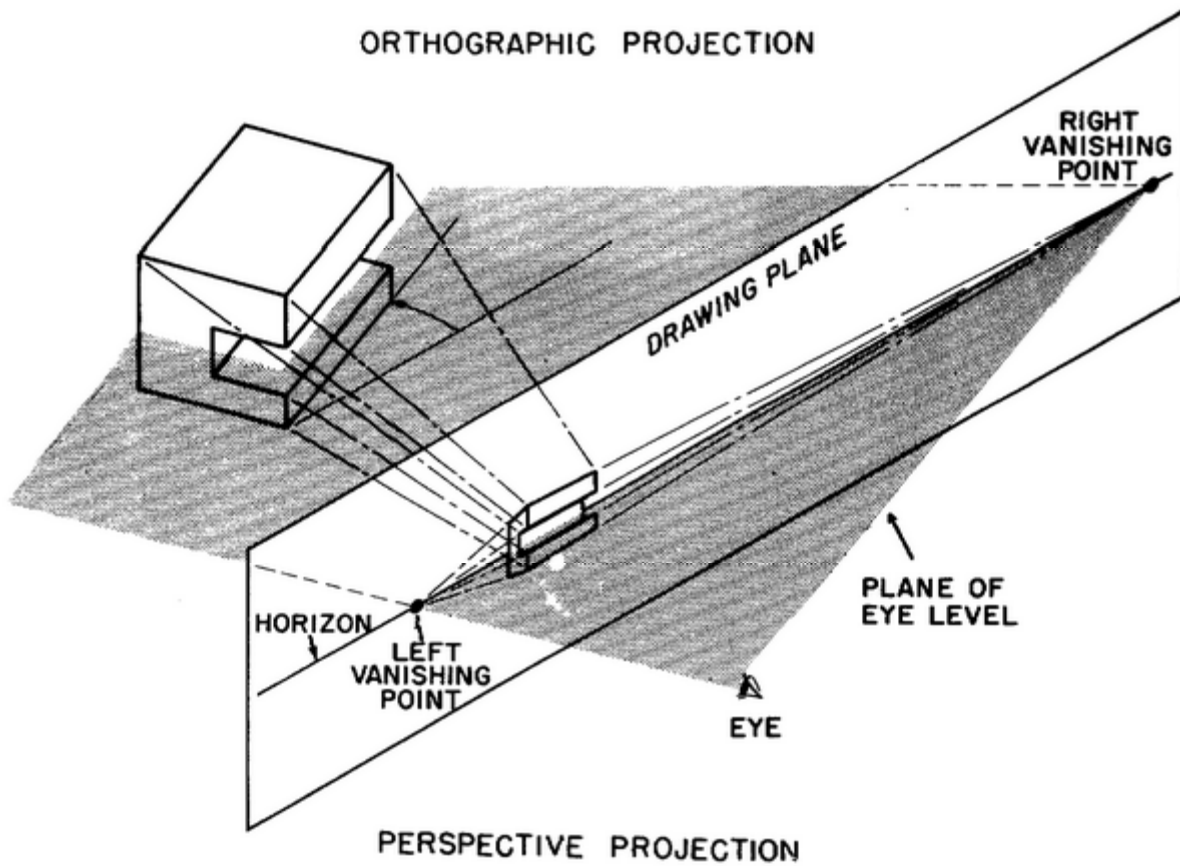
(1) The major advantage of an orthographic projection is that it shows every part of an object that is parallel to the drawing plane in true relative size and position.

(2) The numbers of views to be used in projecting a drawing are governed by the complexity of the shape of the drawing. Complex objects are normally drawn showing six views; that is both ends, front, top, rear, and bottom. Figure 1-7 shows an object placed in a transparent box. The projections of the object on the sides of the box are the views seen by looking straight at the object through each side. If the outlines are scribed on each surface and the box opened and laid flat, the result is a six-view, orthographic projection drawing. It should be noted that the rear view may appear in any one of four positions (to the right of the right side view or left of the left side view, above the top or below the bottom view).

(3) As a general rule, you will find that most drawings will be presented in three views. For a simple object, three views are adequate to completely describe the object when dimensions are added (fig 1-8).



ORTHOGRAPHIC PROJECTION



PERSPECTIVE PROJECTION

Figure 1-6. Orthographic versus perspective projection.

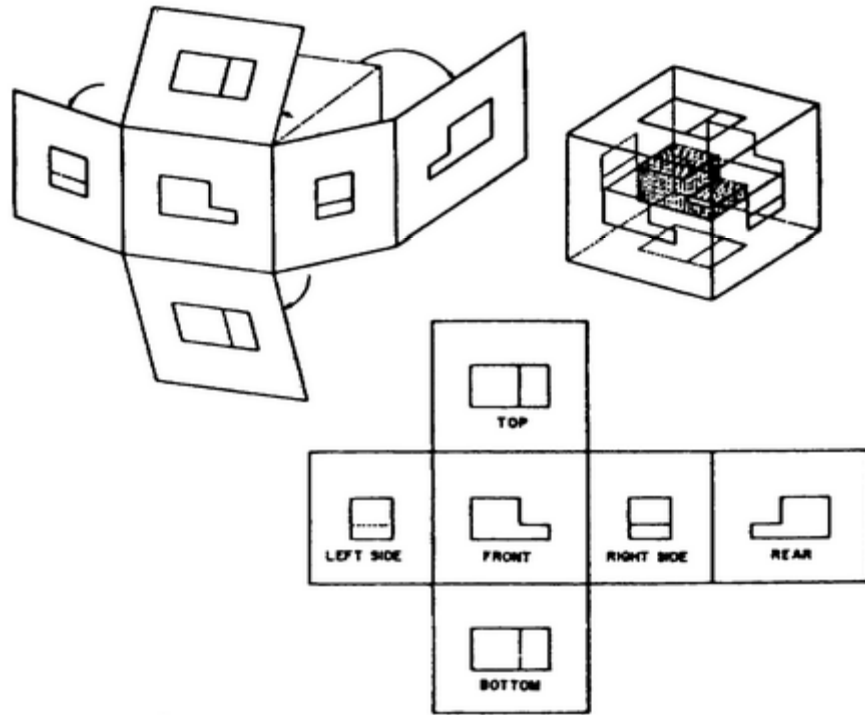


Figure 1-7. Third angle orthographic projection.

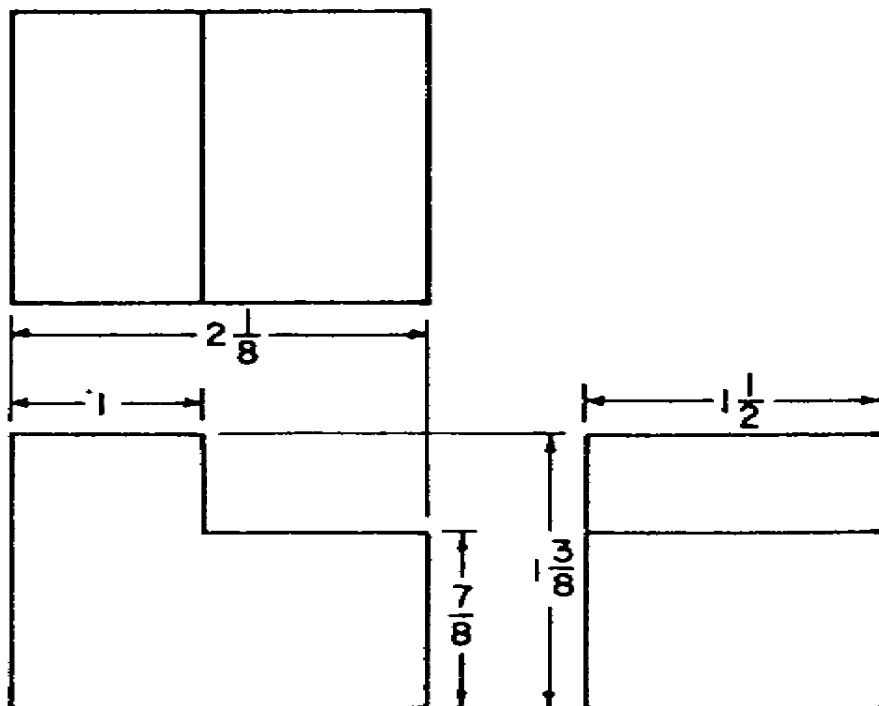


Figure 1-8. Three-view drawing.

Occasionally, you will see two-view drawings, particularly cylindrical objects. The most common three-view drawing arrangement shows the front, top, and right side view of an object.

(4) In a three-view drawing, the front view shows the most characteristic feature of the object. Note in figure 1-8 that the right side or end view is projected to the right of the front. Also notice that all the horizontal outlines of the front view are extended horizontally to make up the side view and all the vertical outlines of the front view are extended vertically to make up the top view. By studying the drawing you should obtain the following information about the object: the shape of the object, its overall length (2 1/8 inches), its width (1 1/2 inches), and its height (1 3/8 inches). It is notched 1 1/8 inches from the right side and 7/8 inch from the bottom. After having studied each view of the object, you should be able to visualize the object as it appears in figure 1-9. If a hole is drilled in the notched portion of the object, the drawing would appear as in figure 1-10. The position of the hole is indicated by hidden lines in the front and side views and as a circle in the top view. The location of the center of the drilled hole is indicated by a center line.

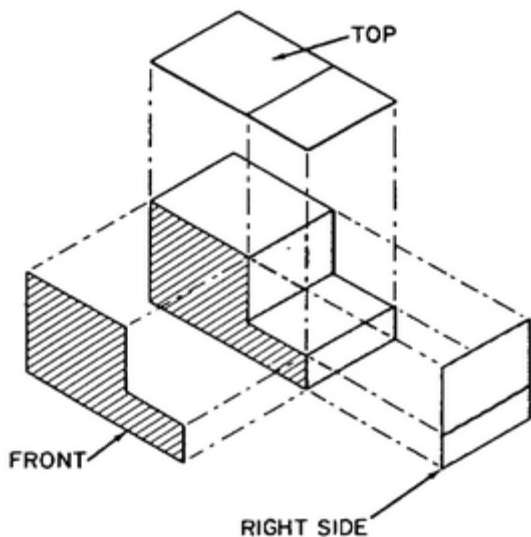


Figure 1-9. Interpretation of three-view drawing

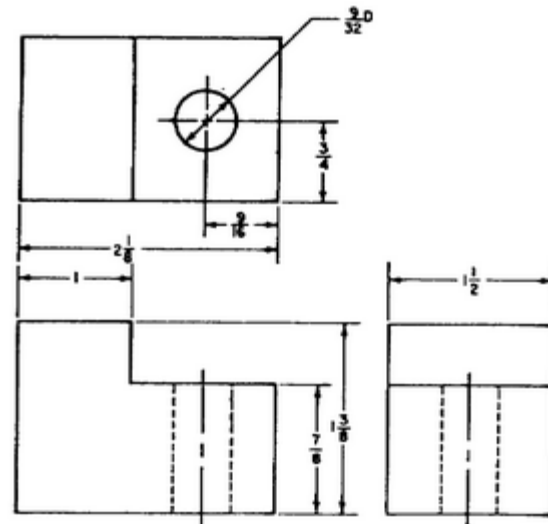
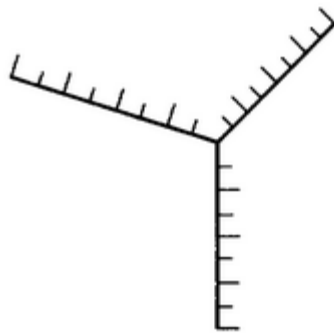
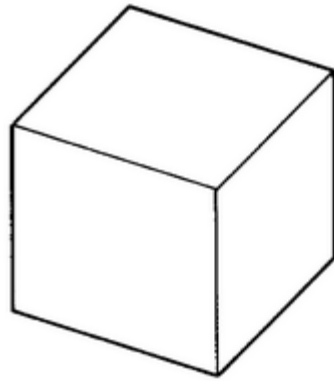


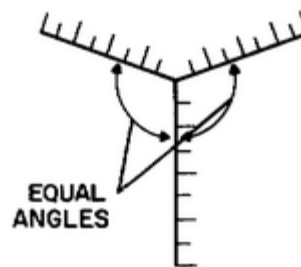
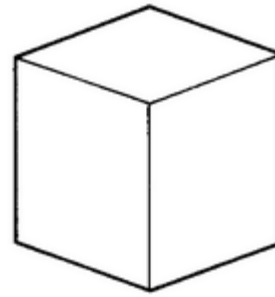
Figure 1-10. Hidden lines in a three-view drawing.

b. Pictorial Drawings. It is easier to visualize an object if its features can be shown in a single view. Where it is necessary for the drawing to show the appearance of an object with more than one side visible in a single view, pictorial drawings are used. Three types of pictorial drawings may be encountered: projections, oblique drawings, and perspective drawings.

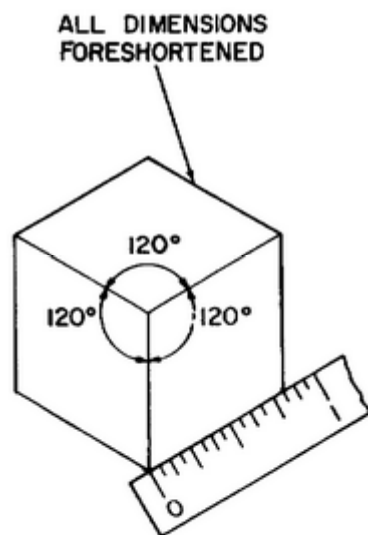
(1) Projections. The principle of pictorial projections is the same as orthographic projection, but the object is rotated and tilted so that more than one face is projected on the drawing plane as shown in figure 1-11. Since the faces of the object are not parallel to the drawing plane, lines are foreshortened and do not appear in true length. If each object plane forms a different angle with the drawing plane, the amount of foreshortening is different along the axis of the drawing. This is called a trimetric projection (fig 1-11) and three different scales must be used. If the object is rotated so that two planes form the same angle with the drawing plane, the amount of foreshortening will be the same along two axes. This is called a dimetric projection (fig 1-11) since only two scales are used. If the object is tilted so that all three planes form the same angle with drawing plane, the scale will be the same



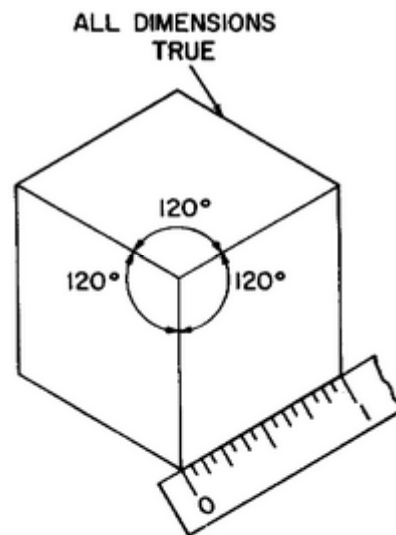
TRIMETRIC



DIMETRIC



ISOMETRIC PROJECTION



ISOMETRIC DRAWING

Figure 1-11. Pictorial projections of a cube.

along all three axes. This is called an isometric projection (fig 1-11), and is the most common type in technical work. All lines parallel with one of the three principal axes are foreshortened by the same amount (to about 81 percent of true length) on an isometric projection. In isometric drawing (fig 1-11) the common practice is to enlarge the scale factor so that lines appear in true length. Remember, however, that this applies only to lines which are parallel to one of the axes.

(2) Oblique drawings. In oblique drawings (fig 1-12) the front face of the object is drawn in orthographic form, full scale. One or more sides are then added at an angle to the front face, either full scale, or foreshortened. Any angle and scale may be used.

(a) Cavalier drawing. An oblique drawing in which the receding or oblique lines are drawn full-scale at 45 degrees is called a cavalier drawing (fig 1-12). The result does not create a realistic appearance, but allows the use of one scale for the entire drawing.

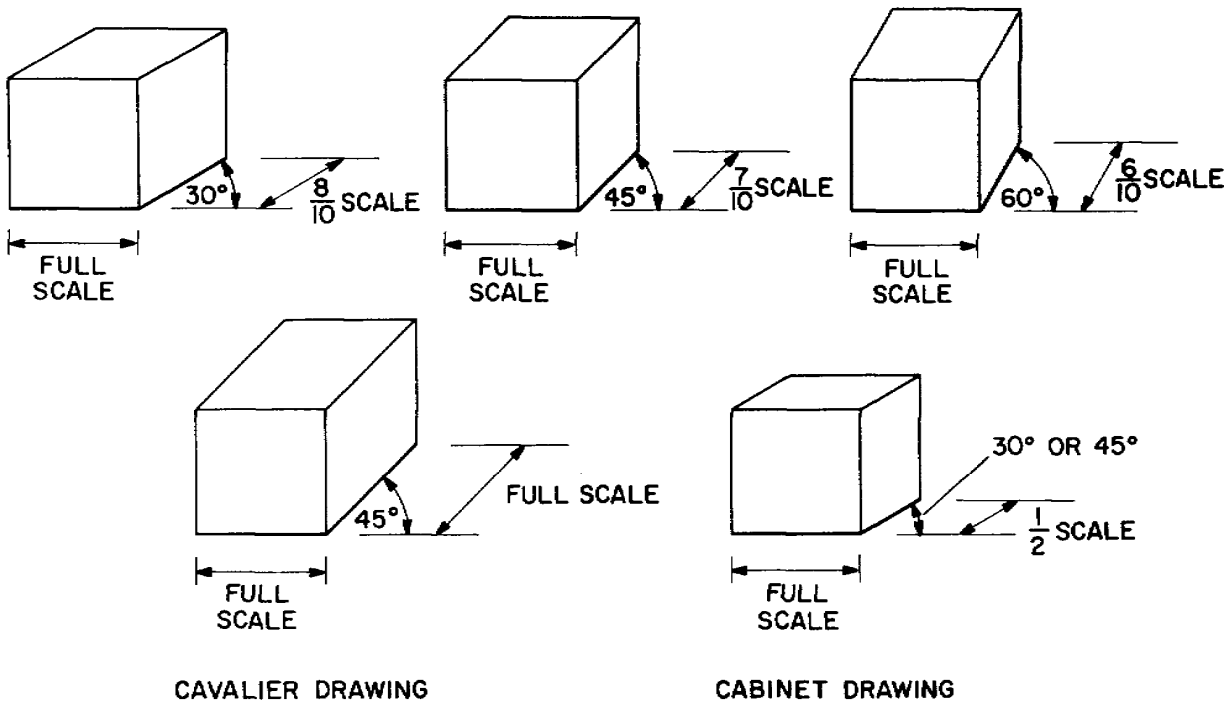


Figure 1-12. Oblique drawings of a cube

(b) Cabinet drawing. A cabinet drawing is an oblique drawing which uses half-scale measurements on the oblique sides (fig 1-12). These drawings are commonly drawn with the oblique lines at 30 degrees or 45 degrees to the front plane. The name comes from the fact that it is often used for drawings of cabinet work.

(3) Perspective drawings. The most realistic pictorial is the perspective drawing. In this type of drawing, the receding lines converge at a vanishing point on a horizon, just as they appear to

do when you look at an object. The perspective may be two-point (two vanishing points) as illustrated in figure 1-13 or one-point (one vanishing point) as illustrated in figure 1-14. In a one-point perspective, the front face appears as if you were looking at it head-on. The viewing angle may be changed by the selection of different positions relative to the horizon (fig 1-14). Perspective drawings are more difficult to draw than projections or oblique drawings, because the scale changes continuously along the receding lines; for this reason, they are not practical for construction drawings.

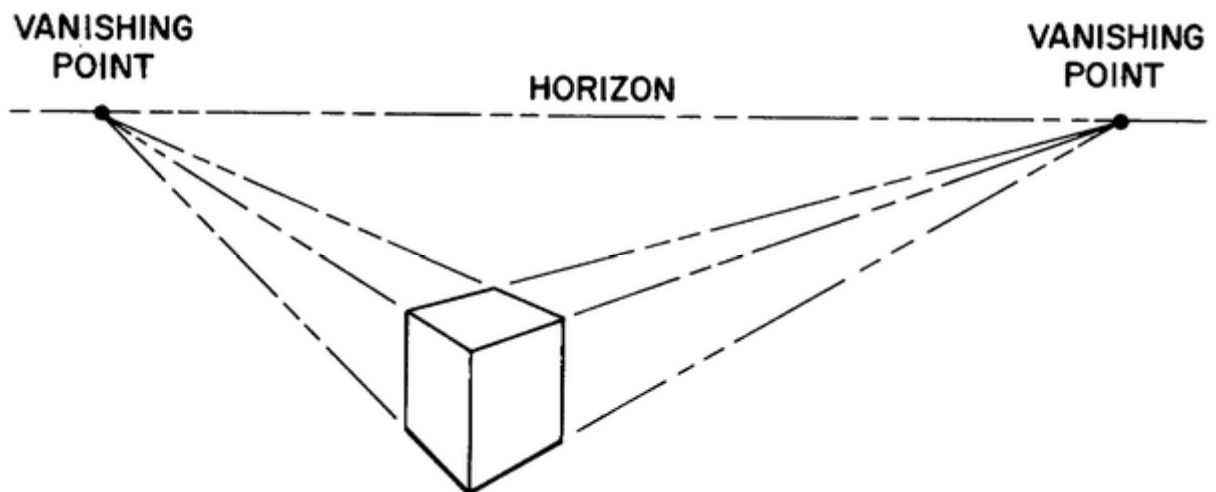


Figure 1-13. Two-point perspective drawing.

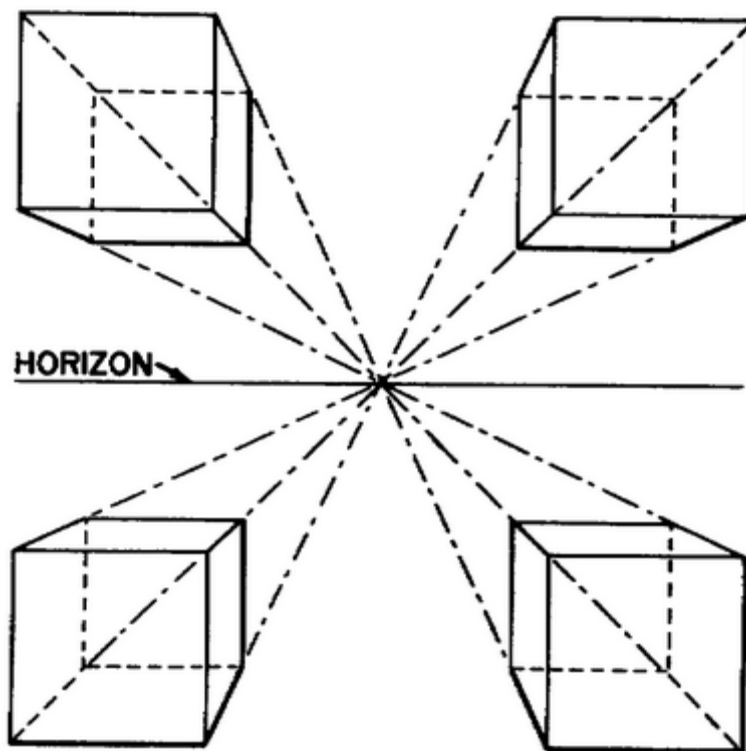


Figure 1-14. One-point perspective drawings.

14. SPECIAL VIEWS

When complex objects are involved, three-view drawings are often not sufficient to convey all the necessary details. Special views are added to provide additional information. The special views which may be encountered are auxiliary and rotation views, sections, phantom views, developments, and exploded views.

a. Auxiliary Views. If a feature of an object is in a plane which is not parallel to one of the drawing planes, it will not appear in true size or shape in any of the three normal views. The sloping surface of the object in figure 1-15, for example, appears in both the top and right side views but is foreshortened in both. In this case, an auxiliary projection is added. The auxiliary view is obtained by projecting lines to a drawing plane which is parallel to the slanted face. The auxiliary view is normally placed alongside a view which shows the true length of the edge of the slanted surface as shown in figure 1-16. In this case, the auxiliary view is related to the front view. If the feature to be covered in an auxiliary view is not in a plane Figure 1-16. Auxiliary view arrangement,

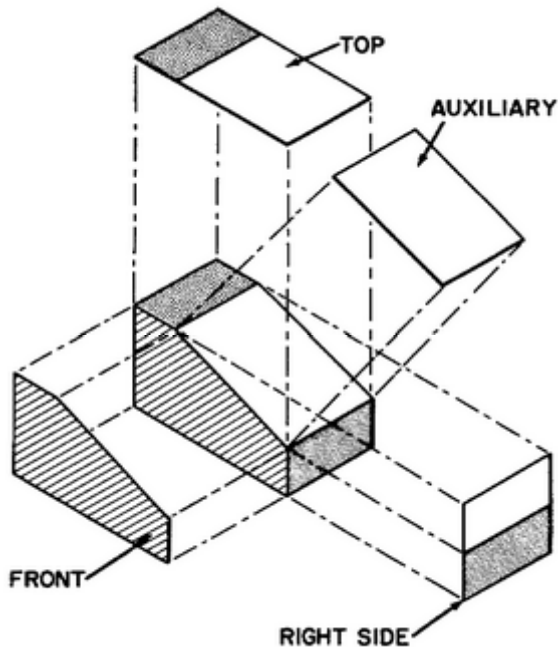


Figure 1-15. Auxiliary projection principle

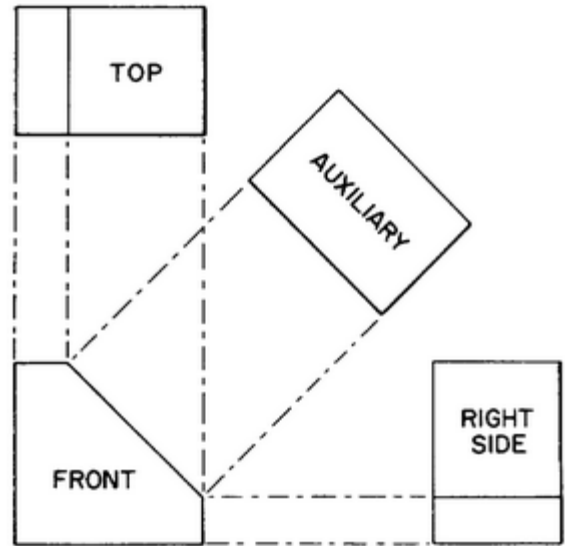


Figure 1-16. Auxiliary view arrangement.

perpendicular to one of the normal orthographic drawing planes, or if there is not enough room in the normal position, the auxiliary view will be placed somewhere else on the drawing. In this case; the auxiliary view will usually be labeled as "view A" (or B, C, etc) with an arrow pointing to the face. Auxiliary views do not usually show the entire object as seen from the auxiliary view angle; only the surface parallel to the auxiliary drawing plane is covered. Figure 1-17 shows an auxiliary view compared with a right side view of the same object. Note that the circles appear as ellipses in the right side view, and the distances between centers are foreshortened. The auxiliary view only shows the slanted face of the object, the holes appear in true shape, and the distances in true length.

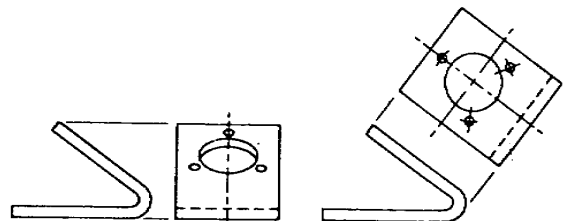


Figure 1-17. Auxiliary and side views compared.

b. Rotation. Occasionally, if no confusion will result from the practice, a separate auxiliary view is omitted and a side or top view is provided, drawn as if the object was bent to bring the slanted surface parallel to the drawing plane (fig 1-18). This is called a rotation, and the fact that it has been done will be indicated in some manner on the drawing. In figure 1-18, for example, the fact that one view is higher than the other, plus the curvature of the upper center line shows immediately that the right hand view is a rotation.

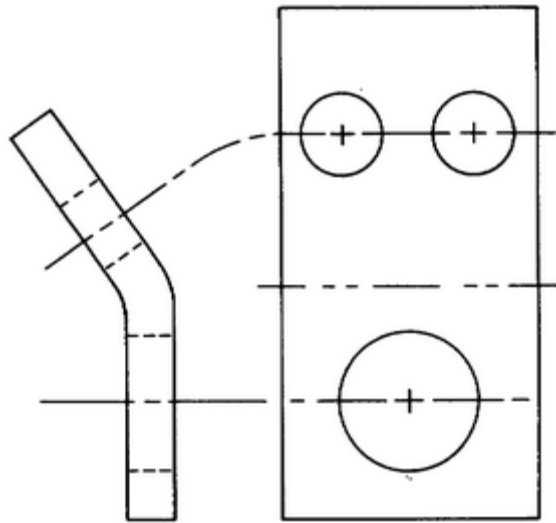


Figure 1-18. Rotation.

c. Sections. Section views are used to give a clear view of the interior or hidden features of the object which normally cannot be clearly observed in conventional outside views. A section view is obtained by cutting away part of an object to show the shape and construction at the cutting plane. The most common position of the cutting plane is through the longest dimension, or main longitudinal axis and parallel to the front view as shown in figure 1-19. The cutting plane may be drawn parallel to any plane of projection if it shows the required features of the object. When section views are drawn, the part that is cut by the cutting plane is marked with close spaced, parallel (section) lines. The section lines indicate the surfaces which were created by the cutting plane and which do not exist on the uncut object. When two or more parts are cut in one view,

a different slant or style of section line is used for each part. All rules of projection apply, but hidden lines complete understanding of the view. Notice how the cutting plane is shown on a drawing as Illustrated in [1] figure 1-19. The cutting plane in [2] illustrates where the imaginary cut is made. The object as it would look if were cut in half is shown in [3]. The section view as it would appear on a drawing is shown in [4].

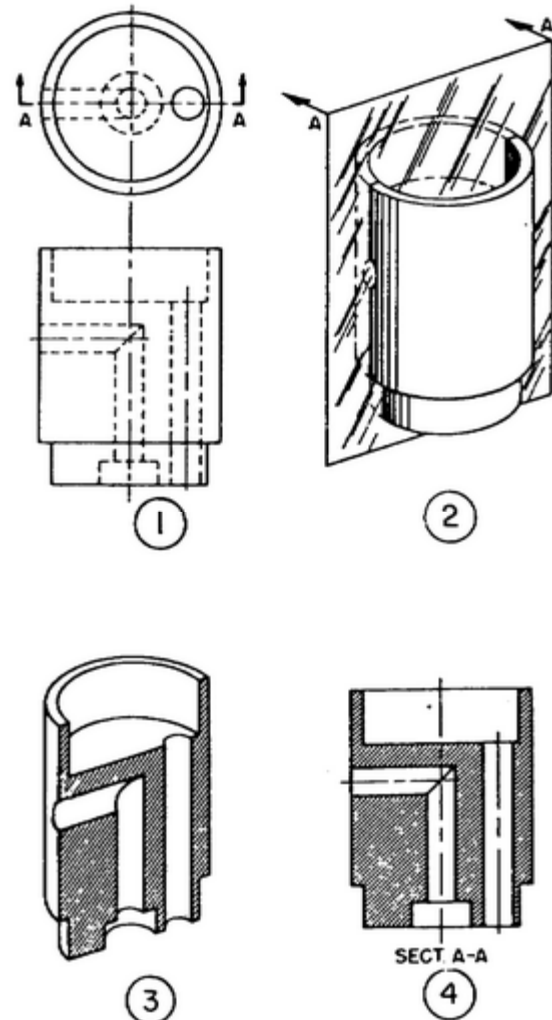


Figure 1-19. Action of the cutting plane.

(1) **Full-sections.** When the cutting plane is a single continuous plane passing entirely through the object, the resulting view is called a full-section

view [1] (fig 1-20). The cutting plane is usually taken straight through on the main axis or center line.

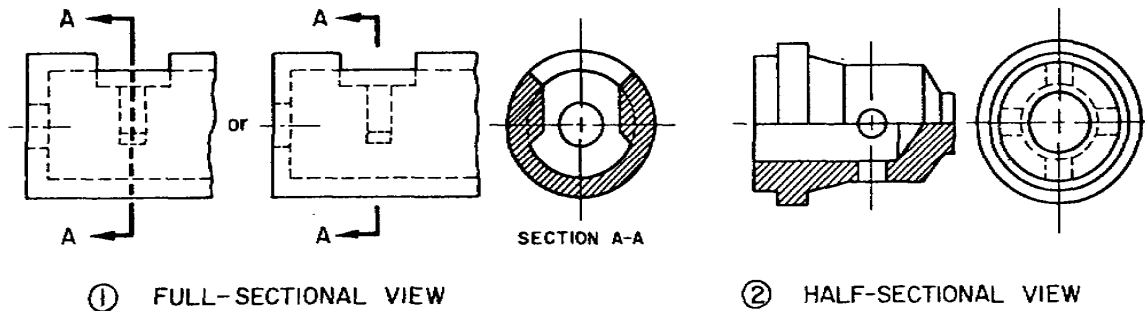


Figure 1-20. Full and half-sectional views.

(2) **Half-sections.** The cutting plane will not always be taken completely through the object. [2] Figure 1-20 shows a half section. The cutting plane passes only half way through the object. This is common practice for symmetrical objects. In the case illustrated, the top half, if sectioned, would be identical to the bottom half, providing no additional information. The half-section permits both the internal and external features to be shown and their relationship to one another.

view, and the top views show the offset cutting plane line. Notice that there is no line on the section view at the point where the cutting plane goes straight back.

(3) **Offset section.** A section view which has the cutting plane changing direction backward and forward (zig-zag), so as to pass through features that are important to show, is known as an offset section. The offset cutting plane in figure 1-21 is arranged so that the hole on the right side will be shown in section. The sectional view is the front

(4) **Revolved section.** To eliminate drawing extra views of rolled shapes, ribs, and similar forms, a revolved section is used. It is a drawing within a drawing, and it clearly describes the object's shape at a certain cross-section station or point. The sectional view of the rib in figure 1-22 has been revolved so that you can look at it head-on.

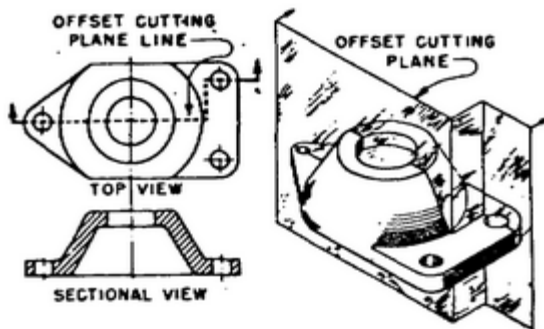


Figure 1-21. Offset section.

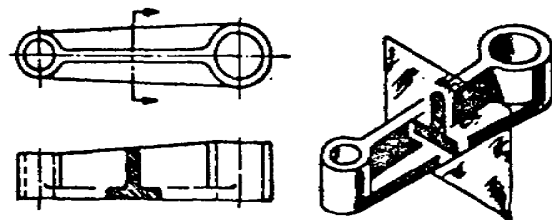


Figure 1-22. Revolved section.

(5) **Removed section.** Removed sections are normally used to illustrate particular parts of an object (fig 1-23). They are drawn like the removed section, except that they are placed at one side to bring out important details. They are often drawn to a larger scale than the view on which they are indicated.

(6) **Broken-out section.** A broken-out section is a partial section used on an exterior view to show some interior detail without

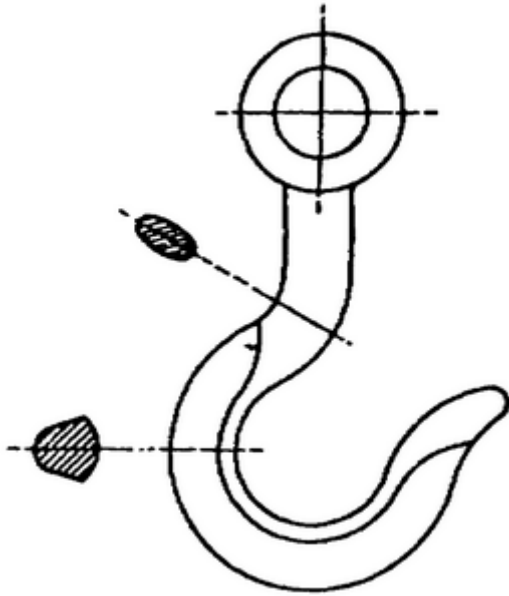


Figure 1-23. Removed section.

drawing a complete full or half section. The limit of the broken-out section is indicated with an irregular break line. In figure 1-24, the inside of the fitting is better illustrated because of the broken-out section.

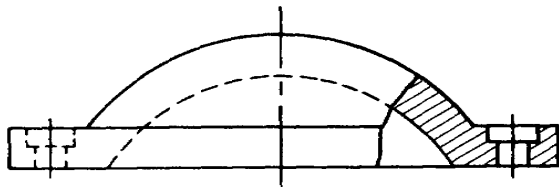


Figure 1-24. Broken-out section.

(7) **Alined section.** Look at the front view of the handwheel in figure 1-25 and notice the cutting plane line AA. When a true sectional view might be misleading, parts such as ribs or spokes are drawn as if they are rotated into or out of the cutting plane. Notice that the spokes in the section at A-A are not sectioned. In some cases, though not in this figure, if the spokes were sectioned, the first impression would be that the wheel had a solid web rather than spokes.

d. Phantom Views. Phantom views are used to indicate the alternate position and path of motion of parts, repeated details, or the relative position of an absent part. Figure 1-26 shows the alternate position of a part as a phantom view (the part of the left side).

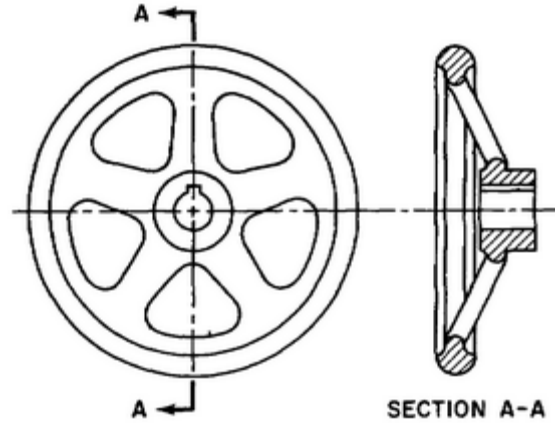


Figure 1-25. Alined section.

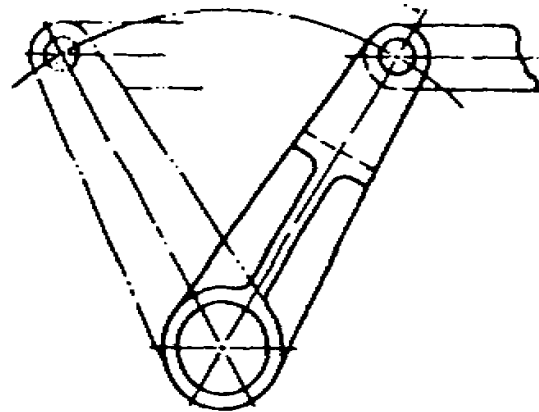


Figure 1-26 Phantom view.

e. Development. A development is a drawing which is used for objects which are made from flat materials by bending and joining, such as ducts. The development (also called a stretch-out or pattern drawing) shows the shape of the material before it is formed into the assembled object (fig 1-27).

f. Exploded Views. Exploded views are used to illustrate the assembly or disassembly of a unit which has several removable parts. It is basically a pictorial view of each of the parts to the same scale, with the parts arranged in a relationship which corresponds to their relationship when assembled (fig 1-28).

1-6. DIMENSIONS

a. The item you will be most concerned with when reading prints is the dimensions. As previously stated, dimensions on architectural drawings are usually given in feet,

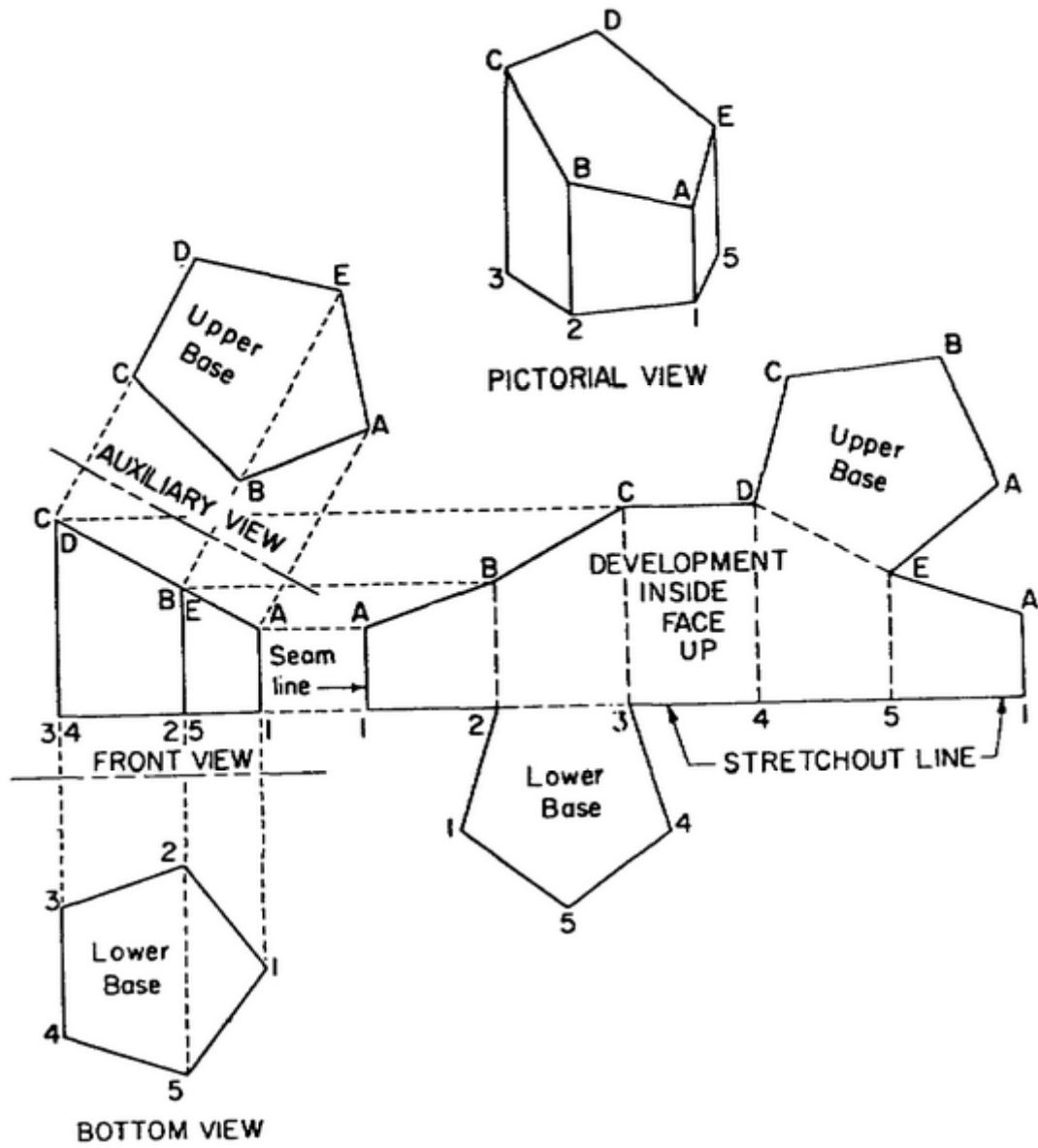


Figure 1-27. Development of a truncated pentagonal prism.

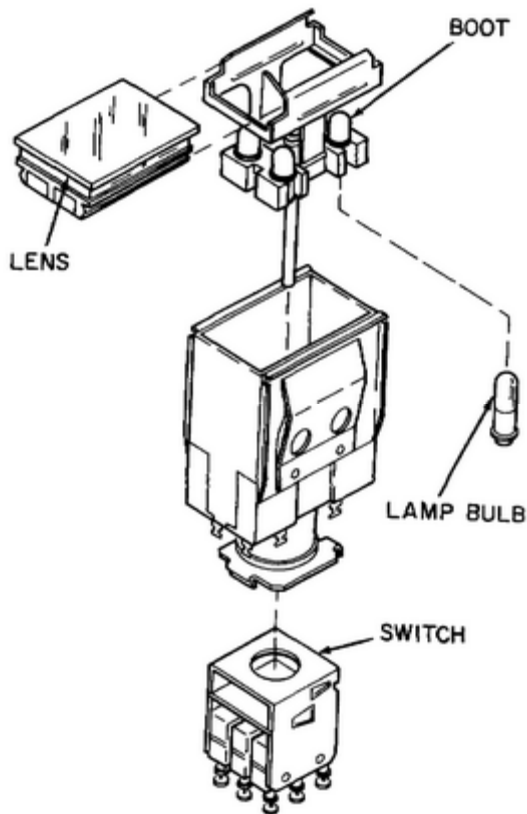


Figure 1-28. Exploded view.

inches, and fractions of an inch. Engineering drawings often give dimensions in feet and decimal fractions of a foot. Metric dimensions are used on drawings of European origin, most drawings related to optical equipment, and a growing percentage of American machine drawings. During construction, you should use measuring instruments calibrated in the same system as used on the construction prints to eliminate the chance of error in conversion.

b. The placement of dimensions on a drawing is not arbitrary. They are placed to indicate which dimensions are specified in the design of the object. Measurements for construction should always be made from the points indicated by the dimension lines on the print.

c. Figure 1-29 is a typical dimensioned drawing of a bearing journal and can be used to illustrate the proper way to make measurements from the points indicated by the dimension lines on the print. Let's consider the measurements required to locate the two mounting holes. If you were using this print and were drilling the mounting holes, you should notice in the front view that the center of the right hole is located 1 inch from the center of the large hole. The top view shows that the center of the left hole is 2 inches from the center of the right hole. This method of making measurements introduces two possible sources of error. There is some tolerance in the location of the right hand mounting hole, and some tolerance in the measurement you make to locate the left-hand mounting hole. Any other system of measurements will introduce additional sources of error. For example, it can be determined from the dimensions that the mounting holes are located 1/4 inch from the edges and the centers could be located in this manner. However, this introduces three sources for error. There is some tolerance in the width of the journal (the 2 1/2-inch dimension) and some tolerance in the location of the centers of the two mounting holes. These three sources for errors could accumulate and result in a significant error in the distance between the two mounting holes. This distance is critical to the mounting of the journal. It is also possible to locate the center of one hole 1/4 inch from the edge and then measure the 2 inches to the center of the other hole. This procedure also introduces three possible sources of error. There is some tolerance in the width of the journal, in the location of one hole, and in the measurement made to locate the second hole. This method reduces the sources of error in the distance between the mounting holes. However, it does introduce possible error in the location of the main hole. It may not be centered between the mounting holes. These examples emphasize the importance of the location of the dimensions when making the measurements in construction.

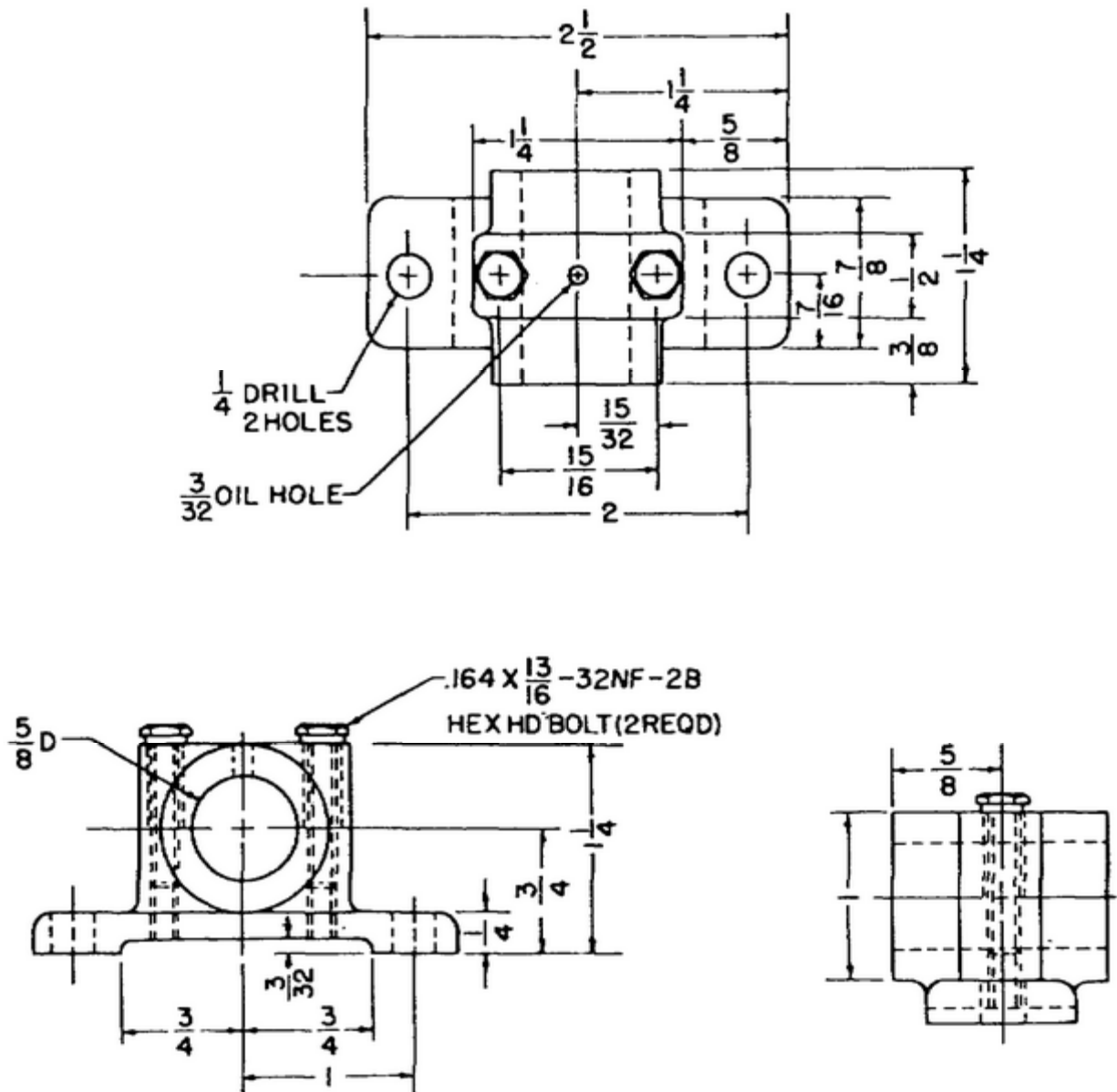


Figure 1-29. Typical working drawing

REVIEW QUESTION 3

Six-view orthographic projections are used to draw extremely complex objects, but generally drawings will be presented in three views showing the front, top, and right side. Which view, if any, should show the most characteristic features of the object? (para 1-4,a(4))

REVIEW QUESTION 4

When the feature of an object, such as a slanted face, does not appear in true size or shape in any of the three normal orthographic views, a true view is obtained by projecting lines to a drawing plane which is parallel to the feature to be shown. What is this additional view called? (para 1-5,a)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 3

It is standard drafting practice that the front view show the object's most characteristic features. (para 1-4,a(4))

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 4

An auxiliary view is made by projecting a slanted face onto an additional drawing plane placed parallel to it. (para 1-5,a)

Section III. Types of Prints

1-7. CLASSES OF DRAWINGS

Drawings are normally classified as original drawings, intermediate or reproducibles, or prints. The original drawing is the one produced by the draftsman. An intermediate is a copy of the original which is used to make prints. An intermediate is used to avoid the risk of damaging the original or because the original is not suitable for the type of reproduction process used for the making of prints. Prints may also be made directly from the original without using an intermediate drawing. A print is a working copy used on the job.

1-8. PRODUCTION PROCESSES

There are many processes used to make prints from originals or intermediates. They can be classified as either negative or positive contact processes or optical processes. Contact processes require a transparent or translucent original. Optical copies can be made from opaque originals. Contact processes are normally used in construction work. Optical copies are usually more expensive and introduce more distortion.

a. Negative Contact Processes.

(1) **Blueprints.** A blueprint is made by placing a tracing (transparent or translucent original) in contact with a sensitized paper and exposing the paper through the tracing. When the paper is developed, the unexposed portions where the light is blocked by lines on the original remain white, while the exposed portions turn dark blue. This produces a print with white lines on a blue background. Blueprints, in general, have better contrast than other commonly used processes of

comparable cost but the wet developing process causes some distortion and marking the prints is difficult.

(2) **Brownprints.** The brownprint process (often called Van Dyke) is similar to the blueprint process except that the paper is transparent and exposed areas turn brown when developed. This yields transparent lines on a brown background. Brownprints are frequently used as intermediates producing a print which has blue lines on a white background and called a white-print.

b. Positive Contact Processes.

(1) **Ozalid prints.** The ozalid process is a contact process like blueprinting but the unexposed areas of the sensitized paper turn blue when developed in ammonia vapor, producing blue lines on a white background. Ozalid prints are also called blueline prints. Papers are also available which yield black lines (called blackline prints). The development in this process is dry, causing less distortion than the blueprint process, but the contrast is not usually as good.

Note: Machines are available which produce ozalid-process prints but which project and reduce the image optically instead of contact-printing. Prints produced by this process will usually be marked "Reduced Size Print -Do Not Scale."

(2) **Browline prints.** Browline prints have the same function in the ozalid process as the brownprints do in the blueprint process. They produce brown lines on a transparent background and are often used as an intermediate for making blueline prints. Browline prints are often called sepia intermediates.

(3) Special materials. Materials are available for use with the ozalid process which produce a large variety of results, including many colored lines on white paper or colored lines on a clear plastic background.

c. Optical Processes.

(1) Electrostatic. An electrostatic copier (Xerox machine for example) projects an image of the original on paper and then causes an electrostatic charge to be deposited where the image of a line occurs. A black powdered "ink" is then applied to the paper and adheres where the electrostatic charge occurs. The image is then fused to the paper. This process produces a dark gray image on a white background. The amount of distortion depends on the type and quality of the optical system which projects the image on the copy paper.

(2) Photostat. The photostat process is a photographic process which uses a special camera and film. The film is opaque paper instead of transparent film as in ordinary photography. Since the negative is opaque and cannot be viewed from the back, the camera is designed to produce an erect image instead of reversed image as with ordinary cameras. The photostat process produces white lines on a black background (negative photostat) which can then be rephotographed to produce a black image on a white background (positive photostat). The image can be enlarged or reduced in the photostat process, usually to 1/2 or 2 times original size in each stage.

(3) Microfilm. For economy of storage space and for insurance against destruction of the original, many drawings are photographically copied on microfilm. When a drawing is no longer in frequent use, the original is often disposed of and only the microfilm copy is retained. Equipment is

available for viewing microfilm copies (similar to a slide viewer) and for making prints directly from microfilm copies. Since the image must go through the original optical reduction, development of the microfilm, enlargement, and the final print process, the chance of distortion is high.

1-9. HANDLING PRINTS

a. A complete drawing represents too much time and effort to be treated casually. It is a valuable record, and must be preserved with care. If an original drawing were to be used on the job and passed from man to man, it would soon become worn and too dirty to read. For this reason, working drawings used on the job are almost always reproductions of original drawings.

b. A little time spent in carefully folding and filing prints at the start will prevent a lot of inconvenience later on. The method of folding depends on the facilities available for storage. Some filing equipment commonly used is shown in figure 1-30. When manufactured filing equipment is not available in the field, storage facilities should be constructed. Prints should be folded so the drawing number is visible when the print is filed. If storage space is available to accommodate rolls, prints over 40 inches long are usually rolled instead of folded. Original drawings or intermediates used for contact process reproduction should never be folded; the creases will prevent close contact with the copy paper.

c. When using prints on the job, avoid long exposure to direct sunlight or the prints will fade. If it is necessary to mark a print, be neat and use a colored pencil. A red pencil is normally used to show additions and a yellow pencil is used to indicate deletions. After using a print, refold it carefully to avoid adding unnecessary creases.

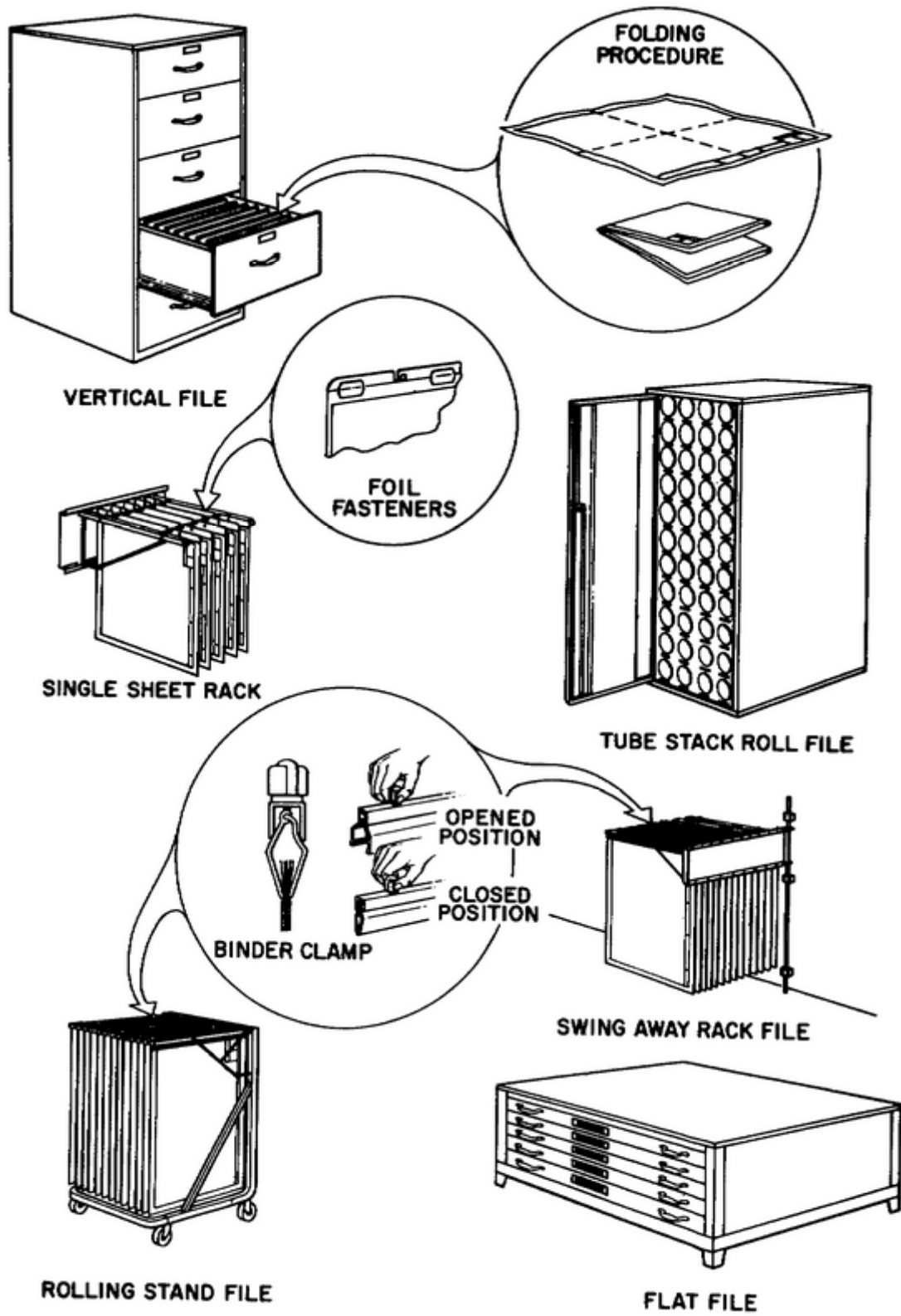


Figure 1-30. Print and drawing storage.

REVIEW QUESTION 5

What type of process is used to produce a brownline print? (para 1-8,b(2))

REVIEW QUESTION 6

What precautions should be taken when using prints on the job? (para 1-9,c)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 5

Brownline prints and the ozalid process are both positive contact processes. (para 1-8,b(2))

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 6

When using prints on the job, avoid long exposure to direct sunlight or the prints will fade. (para 1-9,c)

Section IV. Parts of a Print

1-10. DRAWING FORMATS

A drawing not only provides information about the size and shape of the object being represented but also provides information that enables the drawing to be identified, processed, and filed methodically. The systematic arrangement of the drawing sheet to provide a consistent location for this information is known as the format of a drawing. Sizes and formats for military drawings are arranged in accordance with certain standards.

a. Drawing Sizes. Military drawings are prepared in standard sizes, designated by letters. These sizes are listed in table 1-1. Roll size drawings are normally prepared with an extra 4-inch margin for protection if possible without exceeding the 144-inch length limit. Complete details on military drawings may be found in MIL-STD-100A.

b. Title Block. A typical title block as illustrated in figure 1-31 shows the name and address of the preparing agency (A), the title of the drawing (B), the drafting record (C), authentication and date (D), the scale and specification number (E), and the drawing number and sheet number for multiple-sheet drawings (F).

(1) Drawing number. Each drawing is identified by a drawing number, which appears in a number block. It may be shown in other places also; for example, near the top border line, in the upper corner, or on the reverse side at both ends so that it will be visible when a drawing is rolled up. The drawing number's purpose is to permit quick identification. If a drawing has more than one sheet, and each sheet has the same number, this information is included in the number block indicating the sheet number and the number of sheets in the series. When using construction drawings, always check to be sure that all necessary sheets are on hand.

Table 1-1. Finished Format Sizes (Inches)

SIZE	HEIGHT	LENGTH	MARGIN
Flat Sizes			
A	8½	11	.25 & .38*
A	11	8½	.25 & .38*
B	11	17	.38
C	17	22	.50
D	22	34	.50
E	34	44	.50
F	28	40	.50
Roll Sizes			
G	11	42 to 144	.38
H	28	48 to 144	.50
J	34	48 to 144	.50
K	40	48 to 144	.50

*Horizontal margins .36-inch vertical margins .25-inch

DEPARTMENT OF ARMY
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF ENGINEERS
DIRECTOR OF MILITARY CONSTRUCTION ENGINEERING DIVISION
WASHINGTON DC

TITLE

DRAWN BY: _____
TRACED BY _____
CHECKED BY. _____
SUBMITTED: _____
CHIEF SECTION _____
APPROVED _____ DATE: _____
CHIEF BRANCH _____ ODL CE CHIEF ENGINEERING DIVISION
APPROVED FOR _____ SCALE _____ SPEC NO. _____
DATE: _____ DRAWING NUMBER _____
SHEET OF _____

Dimensions: 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ " (left column), 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " (right column), 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ " (total width). Margins are indicated on the left and right.

Figure 1-31. Typical title block.

Some multiple-sheet construction drawings have a "schedule of drawings" near the title block which lists the contents of each sheet.

(2) **Scale.** The scale block will indicate the scale on the drawing, either as a ratio (for example: 1/4 or 1: 4 meaning 1 inch on the drawing equals 4 inches on the object, or 12" = 1" meaning 12 inches on the drawing equals 1 inch on the object) or as a graphic scale as shown in figure 1-32. Where the same scale is not used on a parts of a drawing, the scale block may be marked "as noted" or left blank, and the scale noted underneath each part of the drawing. If graphic scales are used, several scales may be shown with numbers (fig 1-32) and the appropriate scale number alongside each part of the drawing. When reading drawings, always follow the dimensions specified on the drawing first, and use the scale on the drawing where no dimension is given. Do not measure with an architect's or engineer's scale directly on a print, since the print may be enlarged or reduced, or the paper may shrink during the copying process.

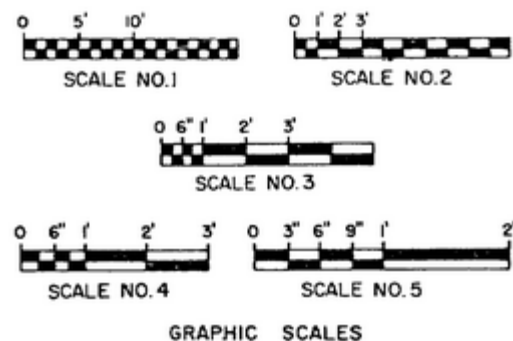


Figure 1-32. Graphic scales.

(3) **Specification number.** The specification number indicates the specification the draftsmen followed for assistance in interpreting the drawing.

e. **Bill of Materials.** A special block on the drawing may contain a list of the pieces of stock or standard parts necessary to construct the object on the drawing, and the quantity of each item required. This list may also be called a list of materials, schedule of

equipment, or parts list. If several sheets are required for a particular object, the bill of materials may appear on a separate sheet(s).

d. Revision Block. Space is always left on a drawing to list revisions as they are made. The revision block will show the revision symbol, A, B, C, etc., consecutively as encountered, a brief description of the revision, the revision date and supervisor's approval, and sometimes the zone of the drawing in which the revision was made. If more than one copy of a drawing is available, the revision block should be checked to find the drawing with the latest revision.

e. Notes and Specifications. Notations explaining construction methods or specifying materials which are not indicated by symbols are called specifications. The notes may list allowable substitutions, special provisions for certain locations, additional reference materials, etc. The notes must always be read before beginning construction.

1-11. MILITARY DRAWINGS

Military drawings are classified as construction or production drawings, depending on the method of manufacture of the object or assembly represented on the drawing or set of drawings. The format of each type is arranged differently, although sheet and margin sizes are common to both.

a. Construction Drawings. Construction drawings are drawings developed to illustrate the design of structures or other constructions and the services, utilities, approaches, or any other features involved. Maps (except those with construction drawings), reports, sketches, presentation drawings, or renderings are not considered to be construction drawings within the meaning of this standard. The basic construction drawing format consists of the margin, the title block with its various subdivisions, the revision block, and the block containing the list of material. Figure 1-33 shows the layout and dimensions of the typical construction drawing format.

b. Production Drawings. Production drawings describe equipment or articles that are

suitable for production in quantity. The same basic information is normally included on a production drawing format as on a construction drawing format although the arrangement is different.

(1) Drawing number. A production drawing used by a government agency will frequently have both a manufacturer's drawing number and a government agency drawing number. Be sure to use the government agency number when dealing within the military supply system. In addition, a production drawing will often have a five-digit identification code for the manufacturer, for the government agency, or both. This number is called a Federal Supply Code (FSC) and permits locating the name and address of the manufacturer or agency in Handbook H 4-1 and -"Federal Supply Code for Manufacturers.": The name and address of the manufacturer and cognizant government agency are usually included on the drawing, but the FSC is helpful because drawings are seldom revised for a change of address whereas the handbook is updated regularly. If the manufacturer's drawing number is used for any purpose, it should be prefixed by the FSC to indicate whose drawing number it is. It is also customary to add the latest revision letter to the number since the manufacturer may make additional revisions to his drawings after the item or drawing is supplied to the government. Revision D to drawing number 703145, by a manufacturer whose FSC is 90222, would be specified as 90222-703145D. When the drawings of different sizes are filed separately, the drawing size letter (table 1-1) is often shown in front of the number.

(2) Part number. In most production drawing systems, a part number is the same as the drawing number for the part except where more than one part is included on a drawing. In this case "dash numbers" are used. Each part covered by a drawing will have a dash number assigned and noted on the drawing. The part number is the drawing number followed by -1 or -2 etc., as applicable.

(3) Application or usage block. Most production drawings include a block which shows "next assembly" and "used on" information, as shown in figure 1-34. The "next assembly" column will list each assembly

which includes the part. The "used on" column will list each end product which includes the part. For example, one pipe section might be used in several compressor assemblies, and in two or three different

air-conditioning models. Sometimes the quantity required in each "next higher assembly" and in each end product is also listed.

"LIST OF MATERIAL" BLOCK SHALL NOT ENCRUMPH ON THE 3" MARGIN SPACE RESERVED FOR "REVISION" BLOCK

COLUMNS USED IN THE "LIST OF MATERIAL" BLOCK AND IN "REVISION" BLOCK MAY BE VARIED TO SUIT THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE COGNIZANT GOVT. AGENCY

3" SPACE TO BE RESERVED FOR "REVISION" BLOCK AT ALL TIME

WHEN REQUIRED

DWG. NO. OF PREPARING AGENCY OTHER THAN THE COGNIZANT GOVT AGENCY, IF REQUIRED

THIS LINE TO BE RELOCATED OR OMITTED AS REQUIRED

SPACE RESERVED FOR IDENTIFICATION OF PARTICIPATING PERSONNEL IN ACCORDANCE WITH ESTABLISHED PRACTICE OF COGNIZANT GOVT AGENCY

SPACE RESERVED FOR ORIGINAL APPROVAL IN ACCORDANCE WITH REQUIREMENT OF THE COGNIZANT GOVT AGENCY

OPTIONAL WORDING

SPACE RESERVED FOR APPROVAL OF OR VALIDATION BY GOVT AGENCY OTHER THAN THE AGENCY THAT ORIGINALLY APPROVES THE DRAWING

APPROVED FOR (OR SATISFACTORY TO)

APPROVING GOVT AGENCY

DATE

SIGNATURE

TITLE OR AUTHORITY

APPROVED FOR SUBMITTER

SIGNATURE

TITLE OR AUTHORITY

DATE

SCALE

SPEC.

DRAWING NUMBER & SHEET NUMBERING AS DETERMINED BY THE COGNIZANT GOVT AGENCY

* COGNIZANT GOVERNMENT AGENCY IS THE AGENCY HAVING COGNIZANT OVER THE PREPARATION OF THE DRAWING, WHETHER PREPARED BY IT OR BY ANOTHER PREPARING AGENCY UNDER ITS DIRECTION

Figure 1-33. Format for a construction drawing.

NEXT ASSY	USED ON
APPLICATION	

Figure 1-34. Typical application or usage block.

REVIEW QUESTION 7

The basic construction drawing format consists of the margin, revision block, list of materials block, and the title block with its various subdivisions. What information is found in the title block? (para 1-10,**b**)

REVIEW QUESTION 8

Assume that you wish to reference a manufacturer's drawing. The drawing number is 569844 and the latest revision is C. The manufacturer's FSC is 29368. What is the correct specification of this drawing? (para 1-11,**b(1)**)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 7

Information usually found in the title block will be name and address of preparing agency, title, drafting record, authentication and date, scale and specification number, and the drawing number and sheet number for multiple-sheet drawings. (para 1-10,b)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 8

The FSC should prefix the drawing number and it is customary to add the latest revision symbol to the number. In this case, the correct reply is 29368-569844C. (para 1-11,b(1))

Section V. Interpretation of Drawings

1-12. INTRODUCTION

The objects used for illustrations thus far have been simple, and interpretation of the drawings nearly obvious. More complex or irregular drawing may require more effort to interpret. The principles introduced here along with the conventions peculiar to certain fields which are discussed in the following lessons will enable you to interpret any properly prepared drawing. The orthographic projection principles are fundamental to all fields and a thorough understanding of them is necessary if you are to read any type of physical prints.

1-13. FUNDAMENTALS OF INTERPRETATION

a. The fundamental step in interpreting a drawing is relating the different views. If you pick a

point on a front view, the same point on the right side view will be directly to the right of it. Similarly, the same point on the top view will be directly above the point on the front view. These relationships are illustrated in [1] (figure 1-35) by the horizontal and vertical datum lines between the views. The same relationship exists between the top and right side views but is not obvious because they are not hinged together. If the outside edges of both views are extended horizontally or vertically until they cross, as in [2, figure 1-35, and a line is drawn connecting these points of intersection, the relationship can be seen. The line connecting the points of intersection will be at a 45-degree angle with the horizontal. All other points in the view can be related by bending their project line at this 45-degree line. If the same point appears on three

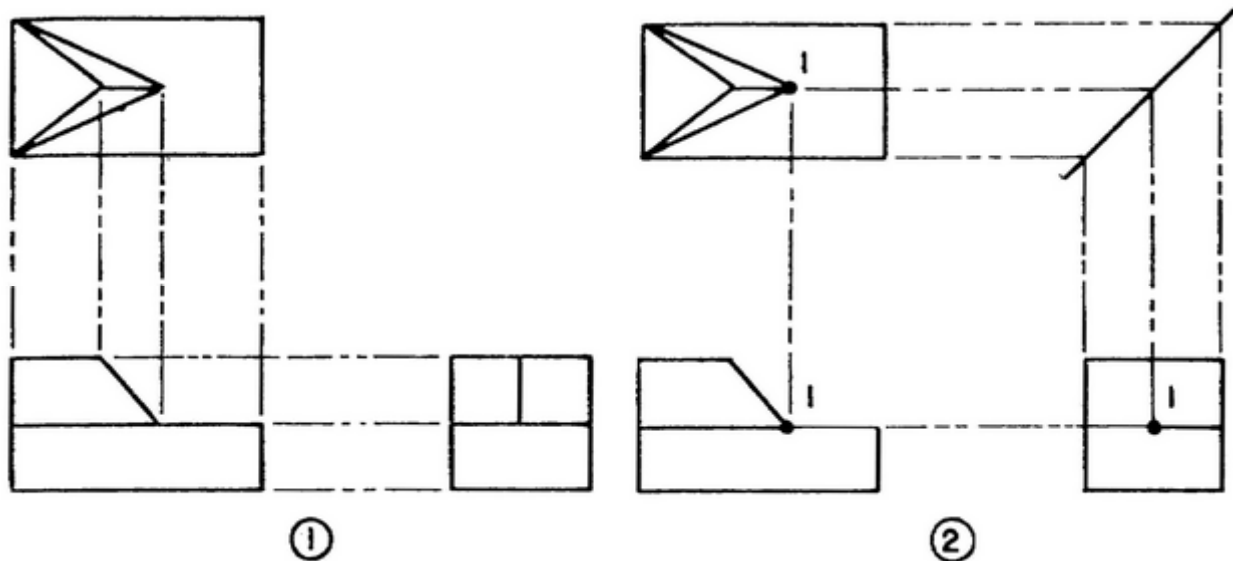


Figure 1-35. Relationships in orthographic projection.

views, the three occurrences will be related as shown by point 1 in part [2] of figure 1-35. On complex drawings it is often helpful to draw this 4-degree line to be sure you are looking at the same point on all three views when interpreting the drawing.

b. Figure 1-36 is a three-view drawing of an object, along with an isometric outline of a box with the same overall dimensions of the object. Trace off the isometric outline and points on a separate piece of paper and sketch in the details as you read the paragraph. This will help you to learn to visualize the object as you interpret a construction print. Looking at the right hand side of the front view, and the corresponding parts of the top and side views, interpretation of the part of the isometric diagram that has been completed should be apparent. Note the point marked “a” on the top view. From the projection indicated it must be the same as the point marked “a” on the right side view. Projecting these two points to the front view shows that the point marked “a” on all three views is the same point and is located at “a” on the isometric diagram. Next look at the line “ah” on the front view. Point “h” on the front view may correspond to point “g” or point “f” on the top view, but there is no line from “a” to “f” on the top view. Line “ah” therefore, must correspond to

line “ag” and transferring points to the right side view, to line “ae” On the isometric view, this corresponds to the line from “a” to “n” which can now be drawn on the isometric view. Line “ab” on the front view must correspond to line “ac” on the top view, and to line “ad” on the right side view. This translates as a line from “a” to “q” on the isometric view. At this stage, it is evident that line “el” (right side view) is the same as line “hj” (front view) and a line has been drawn from “p” to “n” on the isometric view. Similarly, line “fc” (top) is the same as line “hb” (front) and a line has been drawn from “m” to “q” on the isometric view. Line “cg” (top) may correspond to either “hb” or “ja” (front) but not to “ha” which has already been established. If “cg” corresponds to “ja” it would also have to correspond to “la” in the right side view because point “a” has been established and “cg” does not project to “la” in the right side view. Therefore, “cg” corresponds to “hb” in the front view and to “ed” in the right side view. Line “cg” must correspond to a line from “n” to “q” on the isometric view. All that remains is to complete the isometric view with the only possible lines which do not contradict one or more of the three views; lines from “p” to “a” from “a” to “r” and from “r” to “q” produce an isometric which should look like figure 1-37 at the end of the section.

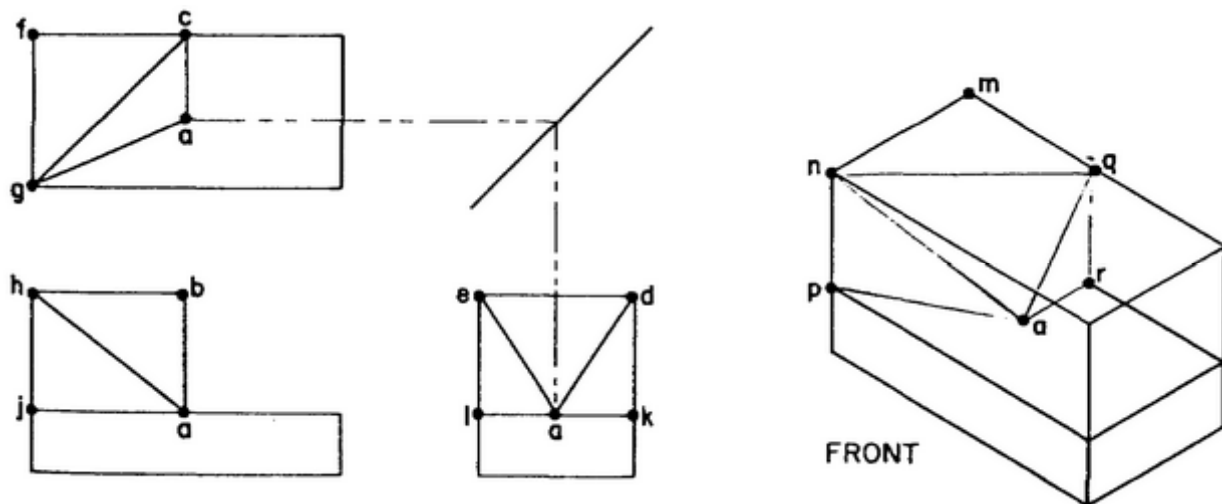


Figure 1-36. Exercise in interpretation.

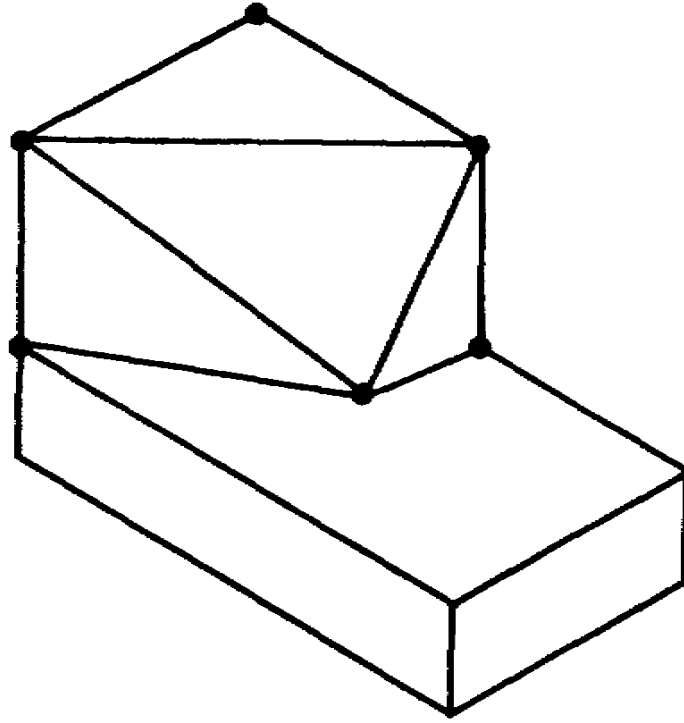


Figure 1-37. Completed exercises.

REVIEW QUESTION 9

What is the fundamental step in interpreting a drawing? (para 1-13,a)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 9

The fundamental step in interpreting a drawing is relating the different views. (para 1-13,a)

LESSON 1 SELF TEST EXERCISES

Upon completion of the text assignment, solve the following self test exercises based on lesson objectives.

NOTE: The following exercises are study aids. References to related information in the reading material are shown in parentheses after each question. Write your answer in the space provided below each question. When you have finished answering all the questions for this lesson, compare your answers with those given for this lesson in the back of the booklet. Review the lesson as necessary.

Objective 1. LINE CONVENTIONS. Interpret the established line conventions and symbols used on engineering drawings. (Answer questions 1 through 3.)

1. When reading a drawing, you will find that the various features of an object are represented by different types and weights of lines. Which of the following statements regarding the meaning of a line with certain characteristics is correct? (para 1-2) (fig 1-2)
 - a. The meaning of a line is the same for construction drawing, but differs for production drawings.
 - b. The meaning of a line has been standardized and will be the same on any drawing.
2. The visible edges of an object are represented by a line often referred to as the outline. Describe the characteristics of the outline. (para 1-2,a)(fig 1-2)
3. A pair of short heavy lines with arrowheads projected at 90 degrees indicates the cutting plane when a drawing includes a section view. What do the arrowheads indicate? (para 1-2,j)(fig 1-2)

Objective 2. PROJECTIONS. Explain the principles of orthographic projections, perspective drawings, and isometric projections. (Answer questions 4 through 6.)

4. In orthographic projection, each face of an object is presented as if it were viewed from an infinite distance through a drawing plane placed parallel to that particular face. Points on the object face are then projected to the drawing plane by projectors which are perpendicular to the plane and parallel to each other. Which lines and surfaces on the object face will project in their true length and shape? (para 1-4,a(1))
5. The most realistic pictorial drawing is the perspective drawing; however, it is not practical for construction drawings. For what reason is it not practical? (para 1-4,b(3))
6. Three types of pictorial projections are the trimetric, dimetric, and isometric projections. The isometric projection is the most common type in technical drawing. Describe an isometric projection. (para 1-4,b())

Objective 3. ORTHOGRAPHIC DRAWINGS. Describe the fundamentals of orthographic drawings, and how they are used to construct objects. (Answer questions 7 and 8.)

7. Six-view orthographic projections are used to draw extremely complex objects; but generally drawings will be presented in three views showing the front, top, and right side. Which view, if any, should show the most characteristic features of the object? (para 1-4,a(4))
8. Each view drawn using orthographic projection will show dimensions in their true length. For example, the front view will show the height and width of the object in true length. Which true length dimension(s) will be common to both the top and right side views? (para 1-4,a(4))

Objective 4. SPECIAL VIEWS. List and describe the various special views used to supplement an orthographic drawing, including sections and auxiliaries. (Answer questions 9 through 11.)

9. Assume that you are looking at a three-view orthographic drawing and you notice that the top view is wider than the front view. Further observation shows that a slanted face shown in the front view has been drawn in the top view as if the slanted face were “straightened out” in order to show it as being parallel to the drawing plane of the top view. What type of drawing would this be called? (para 1-5,b)
10. Section views give a clear view of interior or hidden features of an object and are obtained by “cutting” away part of the object to show the shape and construction at the cutting plane. How is the part “cut” by the cutting plane identified? (para 1-5,c)
11. When a true sectional view might be misleading, parts such as ribs or spokes are drawn as if they are rotated into or out of the cutting plane. The resulting section is not a true projection, but it is easier to read. What is this section called? (para 1-5,e(7))

Objective 5. REPRODUCTION OF CONSTRUCTION PRINTS. List and explain the different methods used to reproduce construction prints. (Answer questions 12 through 14.)

12. Construction prints are working copies of original drawings produced by negative and positive contact processes, or by optical processes. Why are contact processes, rather than optical processes, normally used in construction work? (para 1-8)

13. Brownline prints (often called sepia intermediates) have the same function in the ozalid process as the brownprints do in the blueprints processes; that is, they produce brown lines on a transparent background and are often used as an intermediate for making other types of prints. What type of process is used to produce a brownline print? (para 1-,b(2))
14. What special care should be taken regarding the storing of original or intermediate drawings used to produce prints by contact processes? (para 1-9,b)

Objective 6. CONSTRUCTION PRINT FORMAT. Describe the format of a construction print. (Answer questions 15 and 16.)

15. Military drawings are prepared in standard sizes, designated by letters. What letter designates a flat size drawing with a height of 22 inches, length of 34 inches, and a .50-inch margin? (para 1-10,a)(table 1-1)
16. The basic construction drawing format consists of the margin, revision block, list of materials block, and the title block with its various subdivisions. Which of the following will be part of information appearing in the title block? (para 1-10,b)
- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| a. name and address of preparing agency | c. schedule of equipment |
| b. section convention listing | d. filing instructions |

Objective 7. FUNDAMENTALS OF INTERPRETATION. Interpret simple orthographic drawings by relating them to the isometric views of the objects. (Answer questions 17 through 20.)

17. Note line b'-d' on surface A of the oblique drawing. Which of the following statements is correct? (para 1-13,b)
- | | |
|--|--|
| a. line o-w in the right side view shows line b'-d' in true length | |
| b. line i-j in the top view shows line b'-d' in true length | |
| c. line b-c in the front view shows line b'-d' in true length | |
| d. none of the three views shows line b'-d' in true length | |
18. Note line f'-h' on surface C of the oblique drawing. Which view(s) will show f'-h' in true length? (para 1-13,b)
- | | |
|------------------|-------------------------|
| a. front only | c. right side only |
| b. top and front | d. front and right side |
19. Which line in the top view represents the same line as line v-x in the right side view? (para 1-13,b)
- | | |
|--------|--------|
| a. i-k | c. k-l |
| b. l-m | d. h-i |

20. Which of the following surfaces will be shown in true length and shape in at least one of the three views?
(para 1-13,b)

a. A and C

c. B, C, and D

b. C and E

d. A, B, and E

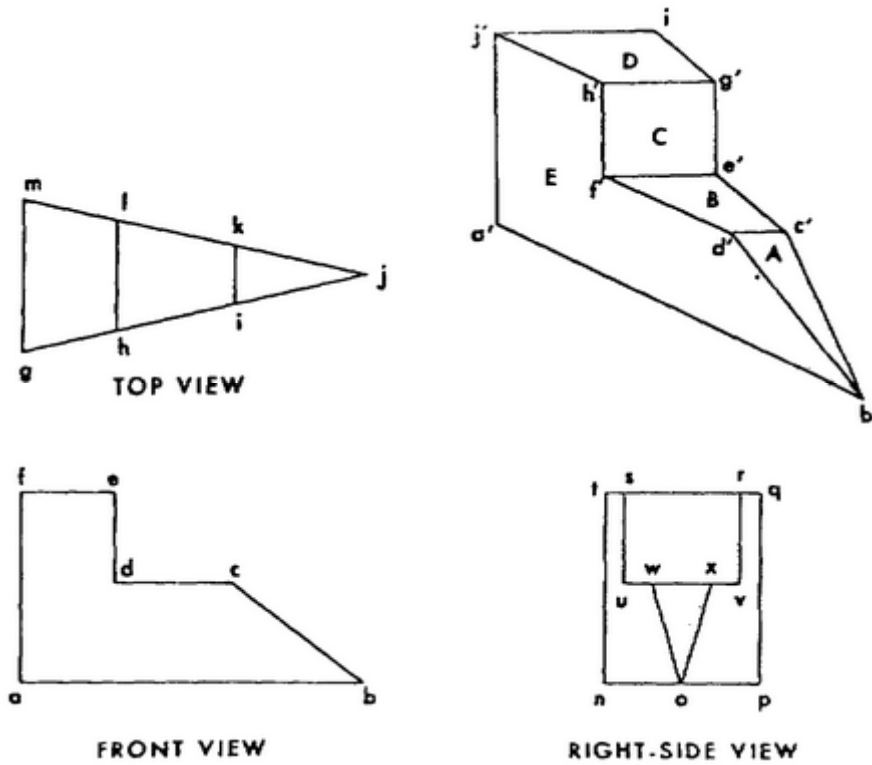


Figure 1-38. For use with exercises 17 through 20.

LESSON 2

ARCHITECTURAL DRAWINGS

TEXT ASSIGNMENT Attached Memorandum

LESSON OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this lesson on Architectural Drawings, you should be able to accomplish the following in the indicated topic areas:

1. **Working Drawings.** List the components of a set of construction working drawings.
2. **Symbols and Conventions.** Identify common architectural symbols and conventions used on construction prints.
3. **Types of Drawings.** Describe and explain the purpose of site plans, elevations, floor plans, and foundation plans.
4. **Framing Drawings.** Explain the framing methods used in wood construction and how they are shown on framing drawings for floors, roofs, walls, sections, and details.
5. **Concrete and Masonry.** Describe concrete and masonry methods and how they are depicted on construction drawings.
6. **Structural Drawings.** Explain types of steel structural members used in military construction, methods of fabrication and assembly, and the types of structural drawings used for steel construction.

ATTACHED MEMORANDUM

Section I. Working Drawings

2-1. INTRODUCTION

a. Working drawings plus specifications are the principal sources of information for supervisors and technicians responsible for the actual work of construction. The construction working drawing presents a complete graphic description of the structure to be erected, the construction site, the materials to be used, and the construction method to be followed. Most construction drawings consist of orthographic views. A set of working drawings includes both general and detail drawings. General drawings consist of plans and elevations, while detail drawings comprise sections and detail views.

b. Site plans, elevations, and floor plans are described in this section together with the most

common architectural symbols and material conventions applicable to military use. Foundation plans, floor framing plans, roof framing-plans, and section details, which are also included under the term architectural working drawing, are discussed in section H.

2-2. ARCHITECTURAL SYMBOLS AND MATERIAL CONVENTIONS

a. **Architectural Symbols.** Architectural symbols are used to indicate on the construction plans the type and location of doors, windows, and other features. The symbol has

the same general shape as the feature and shows any motion that may occur in the plan view. Figure 2-1 shows the symbol for single door (exterior) opening in, and the symbol for double hung window with a wood or metal sash in a frame wall. Each symbol has the same general shape of the feature and the direction of motion of the door is shown. The motion of the window is not shown in the symbol because it is in a direction perpendicular to the page. A more complete list of architectural symbols is included in appendix A.

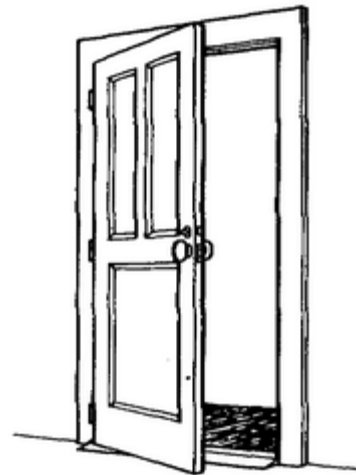
b. Material Conventions. Material conventions are used to indicate the type of material used in the structure. Figure 2-2 illustrates the conventional symbols for the more common types of materials. The symbol selected normally represents a common characteristic of the material where possible. For example, the symbol for wood represents the grains in the wood. It is not always

possible to use a common characteristic of the material for the symbol. You should become familiar with all these symbols for materials to enable proper interpretation of a construction print. You will eventually learn all the material conventions; however, a symbol should always be checked if there is a question in your mind on its meaning.

2-3. SITE PLANS

a. A site plan (also called plot plan) shows, as necessary, the property lines and locations, contours and profiles, existing and new utilities, sewer and waterlines, building lines, location of structures to be constructed, existing structures, approaches, finished grades, and other pertinent data. Figure -3 shows a typical site plan. Appropriate outlines indicate the locations of proposed facilities. The site plan is oriented with a north-

**SINGLE DOOR (EXTERIOR)
OPENING IN**



**DOUBLE HUNG WINDOW
WOOD OR METAL SASH**

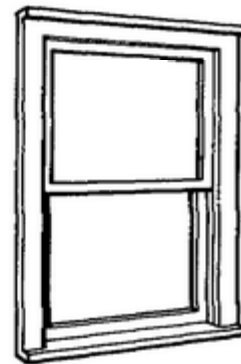


Figure 2-1. Typical architectural symbols for a door and window.

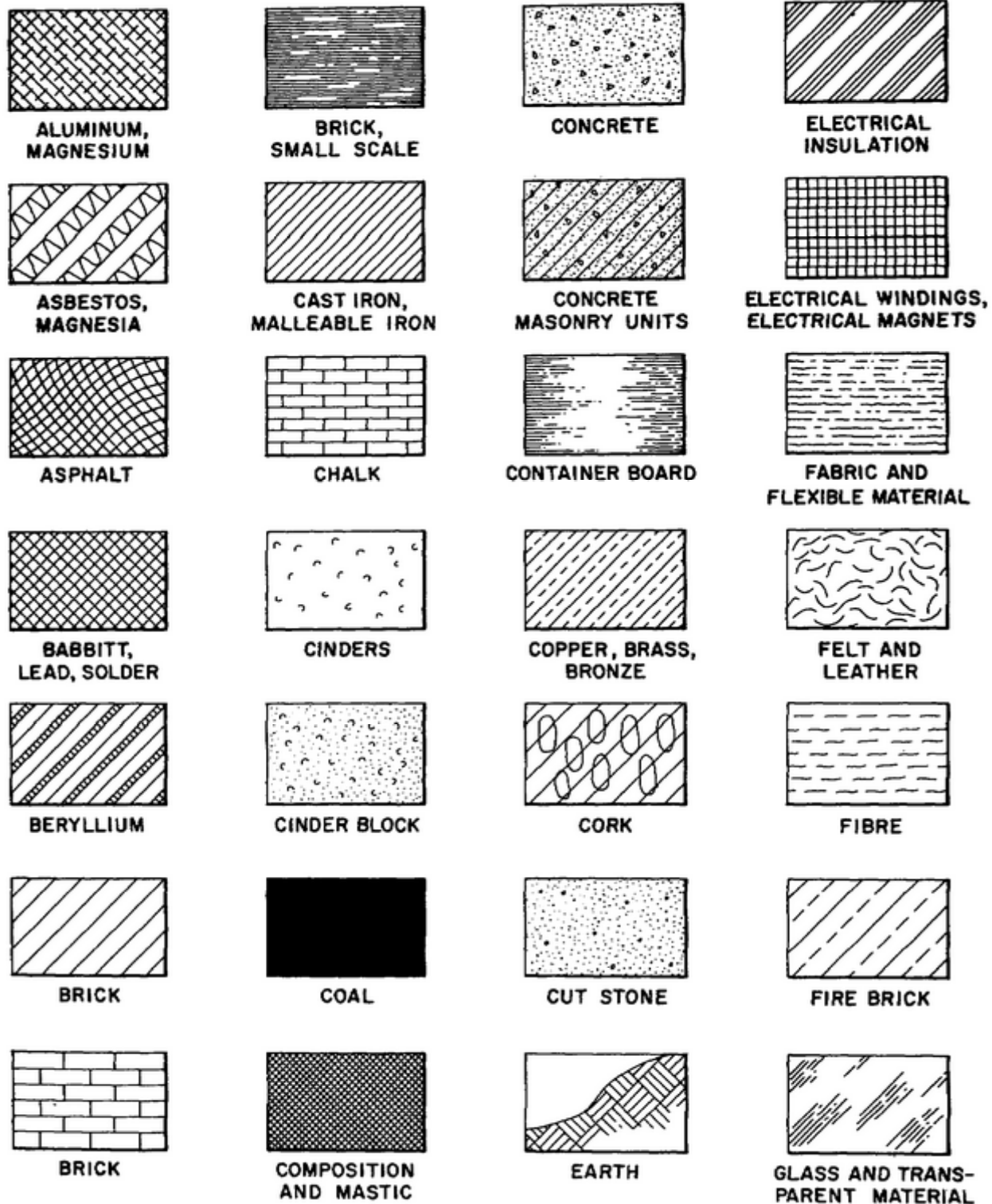
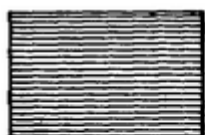
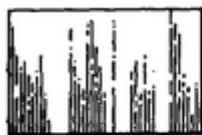


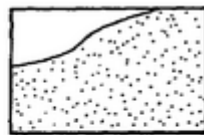
Figure 2-2. Material conventions..



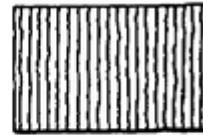
GLASS,
CROSS SECTION



METAL



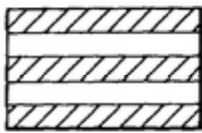
SAND



TILE, CERAMIC,
STRUCTURAL; FACING



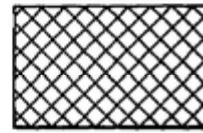
GRAVEL



PLYWOOD



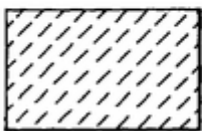
SLATE



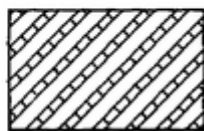
TIN



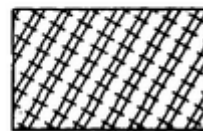
INSULATION,
THERMAL ACOUSTICS



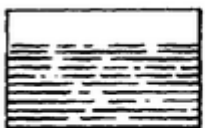
PORCELAIN



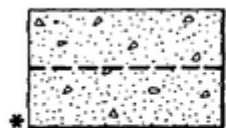
SPECIAL
ALLOYS



TITANIUM



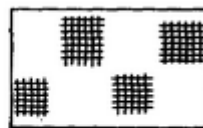
LIQUIDS



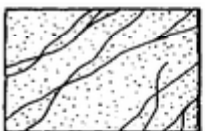
*
REINFORCED
CONCRETE



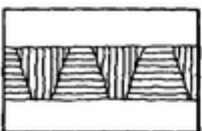
STEEL AND
WROUGHT IRON



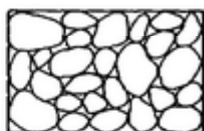
WIRE MESH



MARBLE



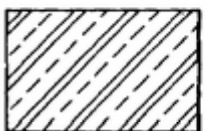
ROCK



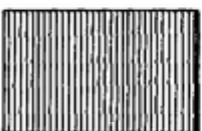
STONE



WOOD WITH GRAIN;
CROSS GRAIN; BLOCKING



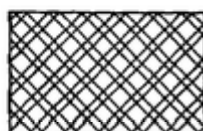
MATERIAL
FISSIONABLE



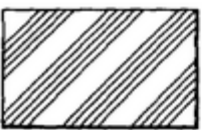
ROOFING
TILE



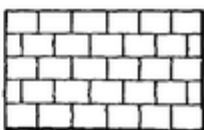
STUCCO,
PLASTER



ZINC



RUBBER AND
PLASTICS



TC TILE

* INSTEAD OF INDICATING AGGREGATE, SMUDGE ON REVERSE SIDE OF LINEN

Figure 2-2. Continued.

pointing arrow to indicate site north (not magnetic north). Each facility has a number (or code letter) designation by which it is identified in the schedule of facilities. The contour lines indicate the elevation of the earth surfaces; all points on a contour have the

same elevation. Distances are given between principal details and reference lines. (The coordinate reference lines on figure 2-3 are centerlines of the roads sur-

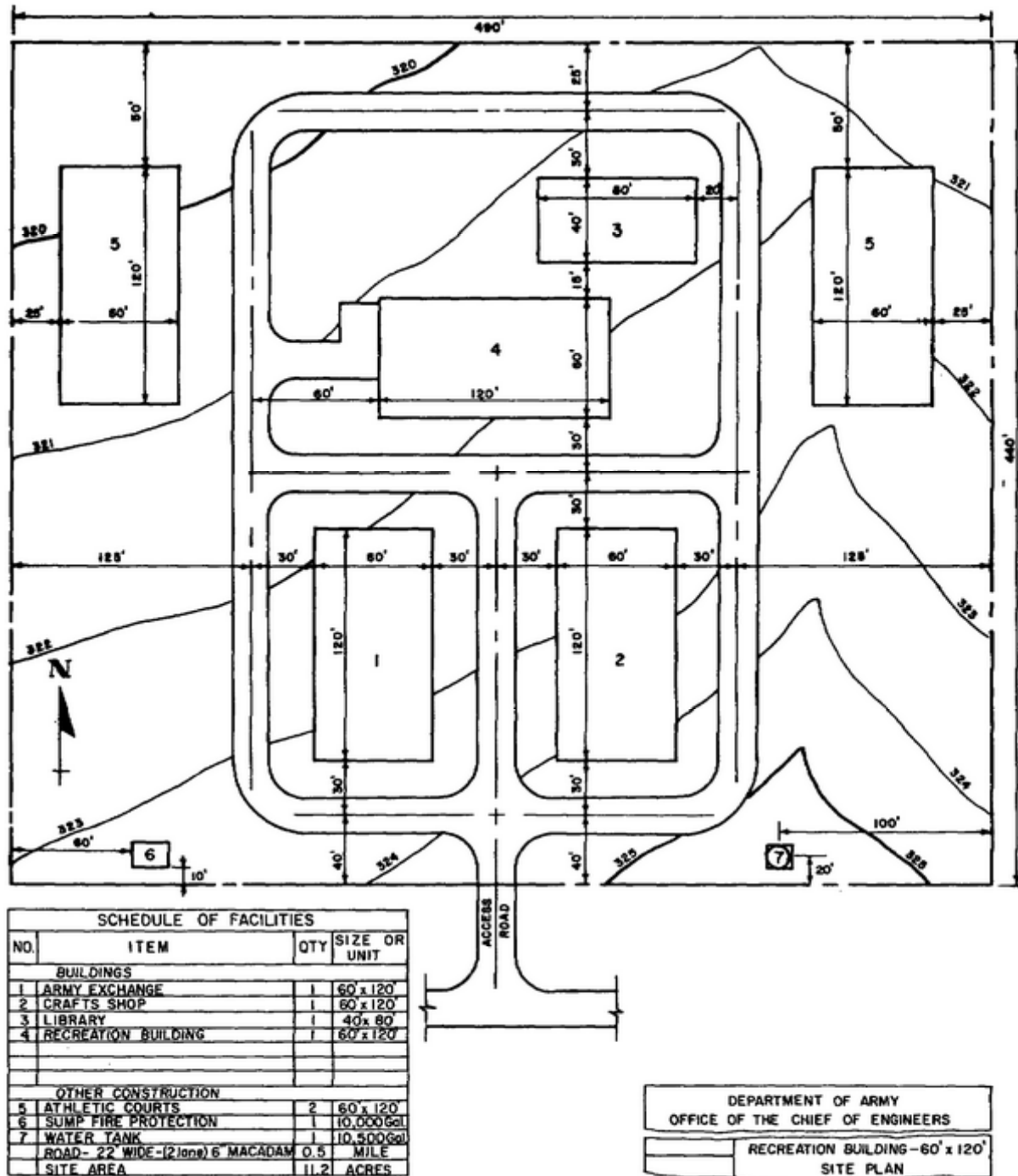


Figure 2-3. Typical site plan.

rounding the area.) All distances indicated in a plan view simply express a horizontal measurement between two points and do not take into consideration terrain irregularities. Sizes of proposed facilities are given in the schedule of facilities.

b. Examine the site plan shown in figure 2-3, and note the information you are able to obtain from it. For example, note how the contour lines and elevation notations show that the ground surface of the site area slopes. See that the plan locates and identifies each facility. Note that most of the facilities are to be spaced apart by at least 60 feet, while the library (facility No. 3) and the recreation building (facility No. 4) must be only 15 feet apart. Observe that besides being the smallest of the four buildings, the library is to be closest to the road; that is, the east wall of the library is 20 feet from the centerline of the road, whereas the other buildings are 30 or 60 feet from the centerline of the road.

2-4. ELEVATIONS

a. Elevations are vertical projections showing the front, rear, or side view of a building or structure. Sample elevation views are presented in figure 2-4. Materials of construction may be indicated on the elevation. It may also show the ground level surrounding the structure, called the grade. When more than one view is shown on a drawing sheet, each view is identified by a title. If any view is drawn to a scale different from that shown in the title block, the scale is noted beneath the title of that view.

b. The centerline symbol of alternate long and short dashes in an elevation indicates finished floor lines. Foundations below grade are shown by the hidden line symbol of short, evenly spaced dashes. Note in figure 2-4 that the footings are shown below grade.

c. Elevations show the locations and character of doors and windows. Each different type window shown in the elevations is marked (in figure 2-4, the three types of

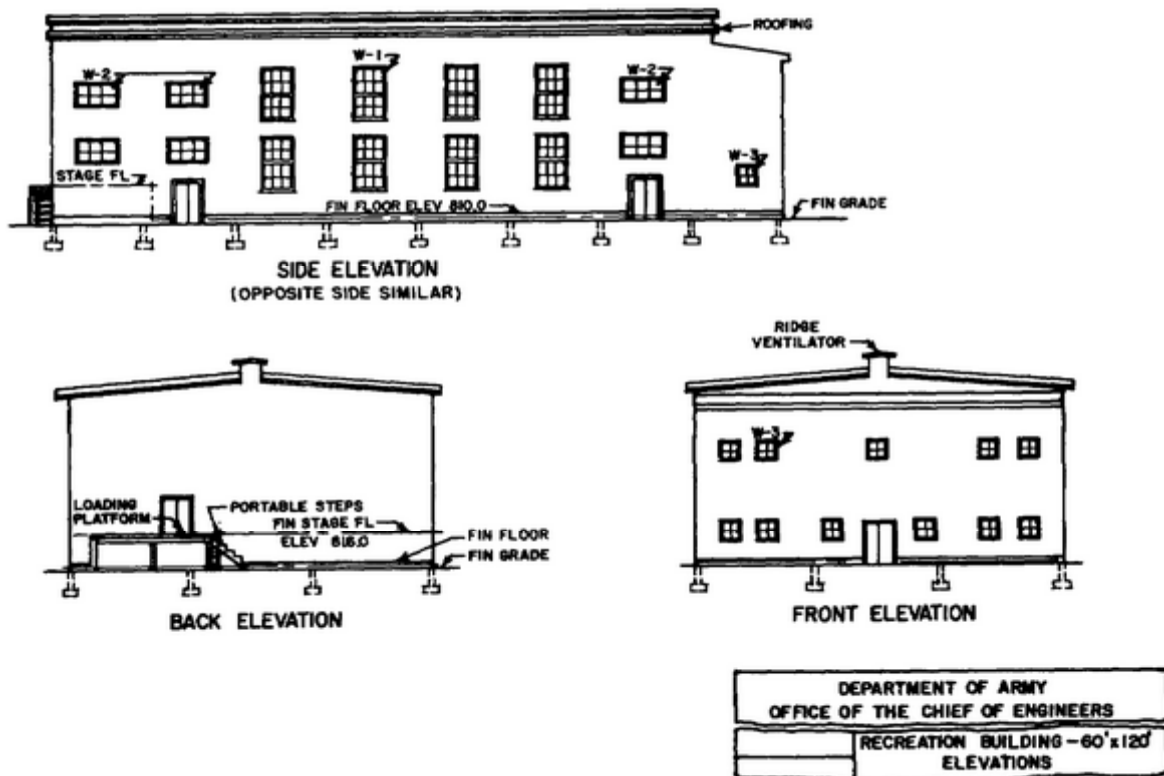


Figure 2-4 Elevation Views.

windows are marked W-1, W-2, and W-3). These identifying marks refer to a particular window whose dimensions are given in a table known as the window schedule. In some cases, the rough opening dimensions of windows are given on the drawing. Note that the recreation building shown in figure 2-4 has two double doors on each side and a double door at each end. The elevation also shows you that at the end of the building with loading platform, the door is at the level of the stage floor and all the other doors are at grade level.

2-5. FLOOR PLANS

a. A floor plan is a cross-sectional view of a building. The horizontal cut crosses all openings, regardless of their height from the floor. The development of a floor plan is shown in figure 2-5. Note that a floor plan shows the outside shape of the building; the arrangement, size, and shape of the rooms; the type of materials; and length, thickness, and character of the building walls at a particular floor. A floor plan also includes the type, width, and location of the doors and windows; the types and locations of utility installations; and the location of stairways. A typical floor plan is shown in figure 2-6.

b. Figure 2-7 illustrates how a stairway is represented in a plan and how riser-tread information

is presented. The plan symbol shows the direction of the stairs from the floor depicted in the plan and the amount of risers in the run. For example, 17 DN followed by an arrow means that there are 17 risers in the run of stairs proceeding from the floor shown on the plan to the floor below in the direction indicated by the arrow. The riser-tread diagram provides height and width information. The standard for the riser, or height from step-to-step, is from 6 1/2 to 7 1/2 inches. The tread width is usually such that the sum of riser and tread approximate 18 inches (a 7-inch riser and 11-inch tread is an accepted standard). On the plan, the distance between the riser lines is the width of the tread.

c. Read the floor plan shown in figure 2-6 and note the features of the recreation building. Although the location of utilities is given, you can disregard details on utilities in the discussion in this lesson. Basically, the lines with small circles show wiring for electrical outlets; appropriate symbols designate the plumbing fixtures.

d. By examining the floor plan, you can see that the interior of the building will consist of an auditorium, a lobby with a P.X. counter, a men's toilet, a women's toilet, a projection room on a second level above the lobby, two dressing rooms, and a stage. The

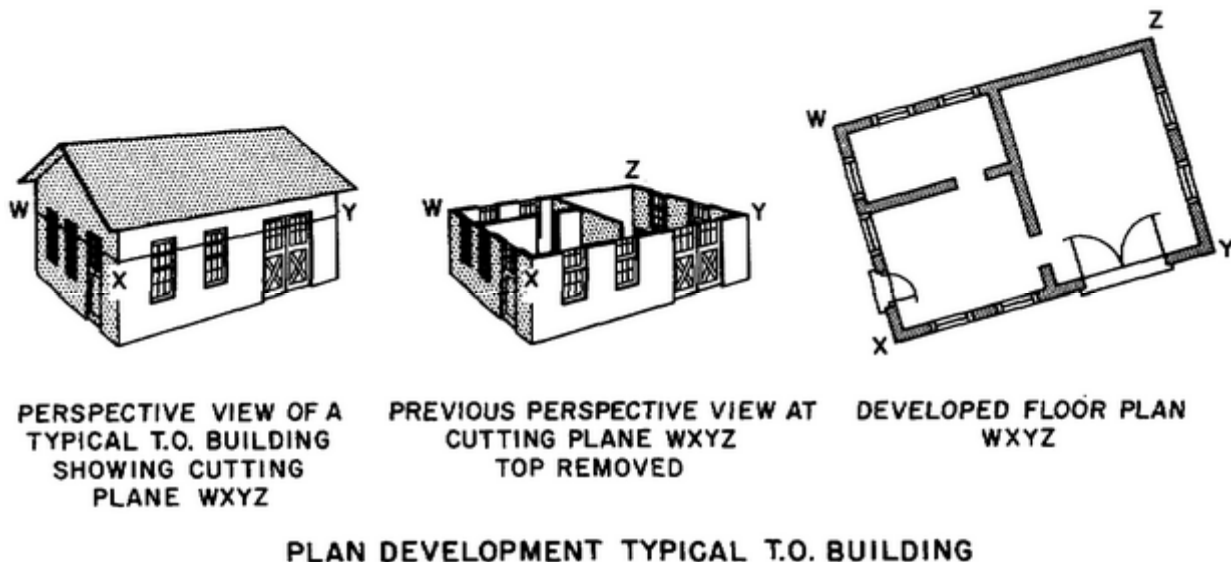
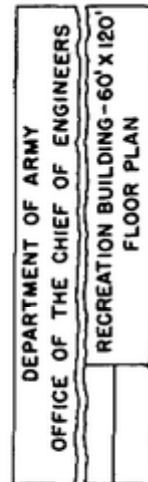


Figure 2-5. Floor plan development.



46

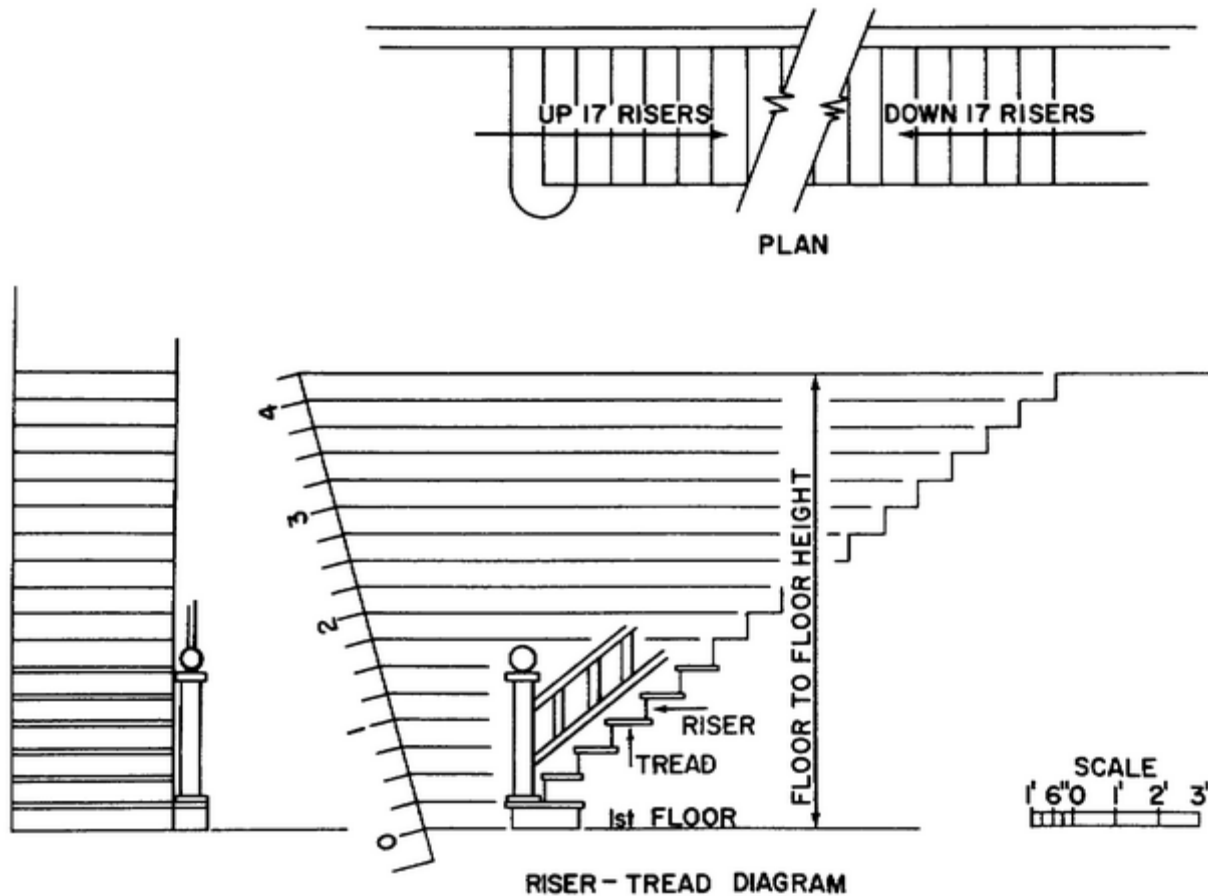


Figure 2-7. Stairway and steps

stage may not be apparent, but, by noting the steps adjacent to each dressing room, you can see that there is a change in elevation. The elevation view, as in figure 2-4, will indicate the stage and its elevation. The plan gives the dimensions of the areas specified. Note that all building entrances and/or exit doors are the same type (1D) and that all windows are the double-hung type. All interior single doors (2D) are the same and two double doors (3D) open into the lobby from the auditorium. The projection room will be reached via a 15-riser stairway located in a 12-by 18-foot room. Access to this room will be from the auditorium through a single door opening into the

room. At the top of the stairway, a single door opens into the projection room. The wall of the projection room that faces the stage (inside wall) has three openings. Note that no windows are designated for the sides of the building where the projection room is located, but are indicated at the main level.

e. The symbols shown in figure 2-8 are typical representations of exterior walls. Note how the material conventions illustrated in figure 2-2 are used in the makeup of the symbols for masonry, brick, and concrete walls. You should become familiar with these symbols.

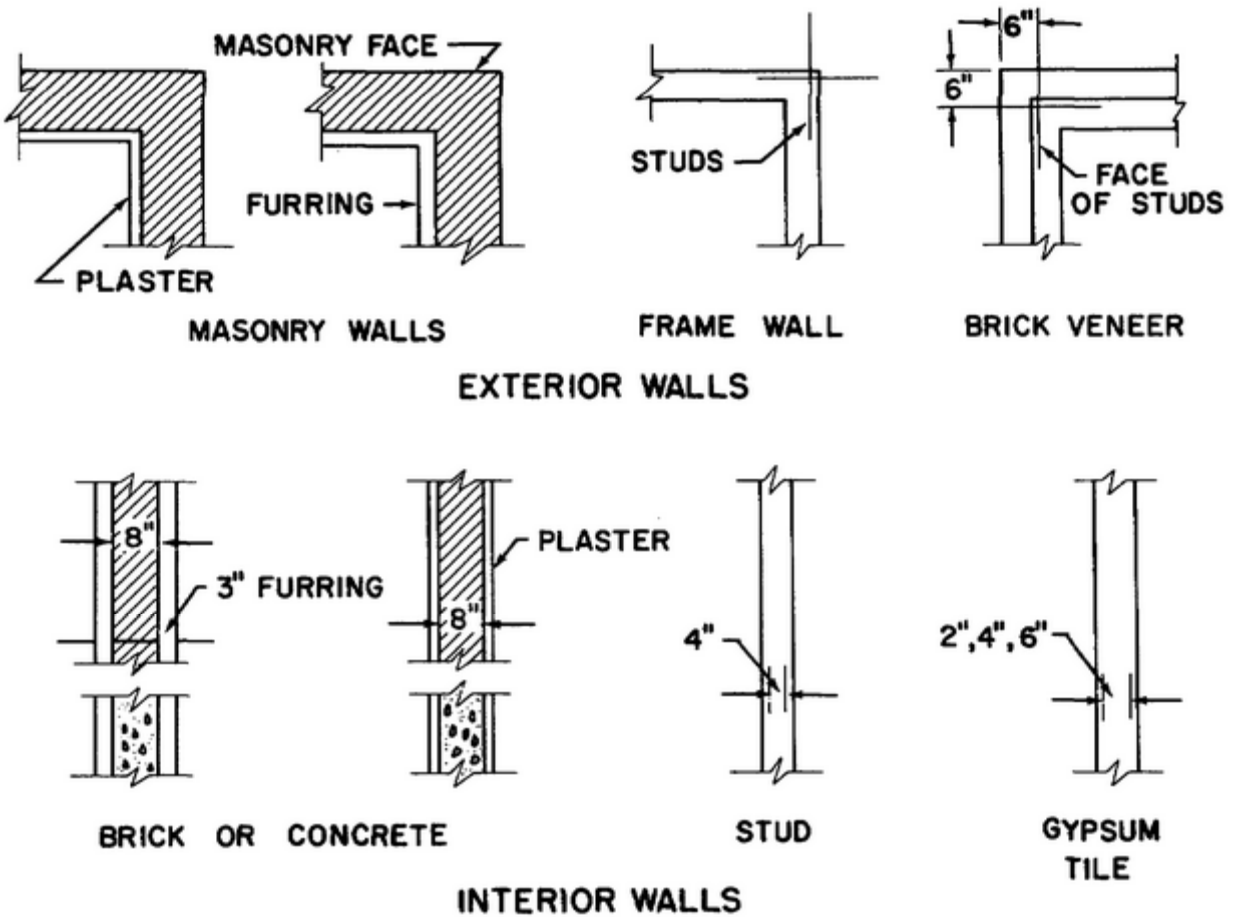


Figure 2-8 Typical wall symbols.

REVIEW QUESTION 1

A set of working drawings includes both general and detail drawings. What is a general drawing? (para 2-1, a)

REVIEW QUESTION 2

If you were studying an elevation, what would the centerline symbol of alternate long and short dashes indicate? (para 2-4, b)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 1

Plan and elevation drawings are classed as general drawings, while sections and detail views comprise detail drawings. A floor plan would be a general drawing. (para 2-1, **a**)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 2

On an elevation drawing, the centerline symbol is used to indicate finished floor lines. (para 2-4, **b**)

Section II. Light and Heavy Wood Framing

2-6. WOOD CONSTRUCTION

Wood is a basic construction material used widely by the military, particularly in theater of operations (TO) buildings. Therefore, you should be familiar with the classification and grading of wood (lumber). The specific type and cut of lumber to be used in a construction is given in the associated specifications.

a. Species. Native species of trees are divided into two classes: hardwoods, which have broad leaves; and softwoods, which have leaves like needles or scales. No definite degree of hardness divides the species. In fact, some hardwoods actually are softer than an average softwood.

(1) Hardwoods. Some familiar native species of the hardwood or deciduous class are ash, birch, hickory, oak, beech, and maple. All are broad-leaved. Lumber cut from hardwoods is not generally used for the construction of structural framing but is employed principally for flooring, special interior paneling, trim, and doors.

(2) Softwoods. Most native species of softwood bear cones and are called coniferous woods. Some familiar softwoods are pine, spruce, fir, cedar, and redwood. These woods are worked easily and make suitable material for structural framing. Of the various softwoods, southern yellow pine and Douglas fir are the varieties used most frequently for construction.

(a) Southern yellow pine. All southern yellow pine used for structural purposes is classified as longleaf or shortleaf. The wood is dense, moderately hard, and strong. When described in a bill of material or specifications, longleaf yellow pine is abbreviated as LLYP, and shortleaf yellow pine as SLYP.

(b) Douglas fir. Douglas fir in the form of lumber and timber is one of the most desirable woods for structural purposes. It also has extensive use as poles, piling, and ties, and large quantities are cut into veneer for plywood and other purposes. Douglas fir is strong, moderately hard, and heavy. In general, however, it has a tendency to check and split and does not hold paint well.

b. Grading. Softwoods and hardwoods are graded by different standards. Only softwood grading is considered here because, as explained previously, hardwoods are rarely used for structural purposes.

(1) Grading criteria. In most cases, the grade of lumber is based on the number, character, and location of features, such as knots and pitch pockets, which are commonly called defects and defined as any irregularity occurring in or on wood that may lower its strength, durability, or utility value. The best grades are practically free of these features; others, comprising the greater bulk of lumber, contain fairly numerous knots and other natural growth characteristics.

(2) Select lumber. Select lumber is the general classification for lumber of good appearance and finishing qualities. Grades A and B are suitable for natural finishes and grades C and D for paint finishes.

(3) Common lumber. Common lumber is the general classification for lumber containing the defects and blemishes described above. The grades are numbered 1 through 5. Grades No. 1 and 2 are for use without waste in framing and sheathing; No. 3 can be used for temporary construction; and No. 4 and 5 are not generally used in construction.

because they are of poor quality and are subject to much waste.

c. Surfacing and Working Lumber. Lumber is further classified according to the manner in which it is milled.

(1) Surfacing. Lumber is classified as rough or dressed, according to the amount of planing done in the mill.

(a) Rough. Rough lumber is as it emerges from the saw, or unplanned; the abbreviation RGH indicates rough lumber.

(b) Dressed. Dressed, or surfaced, lumber is the rough lumber after it has been run through a planer. It may have any combination of edges and sides dressed, such as S1S, surfaced on one side; S2S, surfaced on two sides; S1S1E, surfaced on one side and one edge; and S4S, surfaced on four sides.

(2) Worked lumber. Worked lumber has been run through a machine such as a matcher, shaper, or molder. It can be matched, shiplapped, or patterned.

(a) Matched lumber. Matched lumber is cut so that it interlocks. A common type is tongue and groove (T&G), in which a groove is cut in one edge and a mating bead, or projection, is cut on the other edge. Boards are frequently dressed and matched (D&M) with the tongue and groove in the center, making the pieces center-matched.

(b) Shiplapped lumber. Shiplapped pieces are cut with a square step on either edge and

the projection on one edge at the bottom and at the top of the piece on the other edge. In this way adjacent boards overlap each other to form a joint.

(c) Patterned lumber. Patterned lumber is cut in many designs and is used for trim.

d. Actual and Nominal Sizes of Lumber. Sizes of lumber are specified by nominal dimensions which differ from the actual dimensions of the milled pieces. When lumber is run through a saw and planer, its nominal size remains the same but its actual size is reduced by the amount of surfacing it undergoes. Approximately 1/4 inch is planed off each side in surfacing. Lumber is also divided into groups according to size, namely: strips, pieces less than 2 inches thick and under 8 inches wide; boards, less than 2 inches thick and more than 8 inches wide; dimensional lumber, 2 to 6 inches thick and of any width; and timber, 6 or more inches in the least dimension. Dimensions of some common sizes are given in table 2-1.

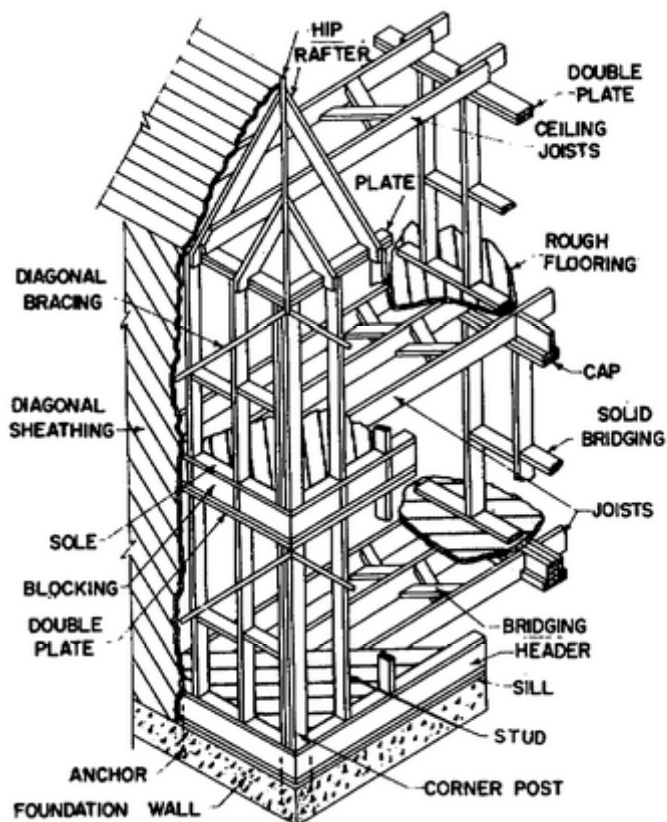
2-7. LIGHT FRAMING

There are three principal types of framing for light structures: western, balloon, and braced. Figure 2-9 illustrates these types of framing and specifies the nomenclature and location of the various members.

a. Western Frame. The western or platform frame (1, fig 2-9) is used extensively for military construction. It is similar to the braced frame, but has boxed-sill construction at each floor line. Also note that cross bridging is used between the joists and

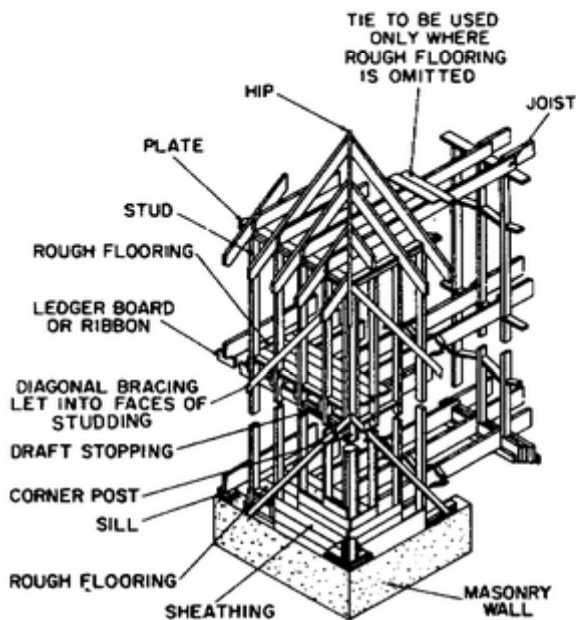
Table 2-1. Nominal Sizes and Dressed Sizes of Lumber (New Standard)

Nominal size (in.)	Dressed size (in.)	Nominal size (in.)	Dressed size (in.)
1 x 3	3/4 x 2 1/2	3 x 8	2 1/2 x 7 1/4
1 x 4	3/4 x 3 1/2	3 x 10	2 1/2 x 9 1/4
1 x 6	3/4 x 5 1/2	3 x 12	2 1/2 x 11 1/4
1 x 8	3/4 x 7 1/4	4 x 12	3 1/2 x 11 1/4
1 x 10	3/4 x 9 1/4	4 x 16	3 1/2 x 15 1/4
1 x 12	3/4 x 11 1/4	6 x 12	5 1/2 x 11 1/2
2 x 4	1 1/2 x 3 1/2	6 x 16	5 1/2 x 15 1/2
2 x 6	1 1/2 x 5 1/2	6 x 18	5 1/2 x 17 1/2
2 x 8	1 1/2 x 7 1/4	8 x 16	7 1/2 x 15 1/2
2 x 10	1 1/2 x 9 1/4	8 x 20	7 1/2 x 19 1/2
2 x 12	1 1/2 x 11 1/4	8 x 24	7 1/2 x 23 1/2

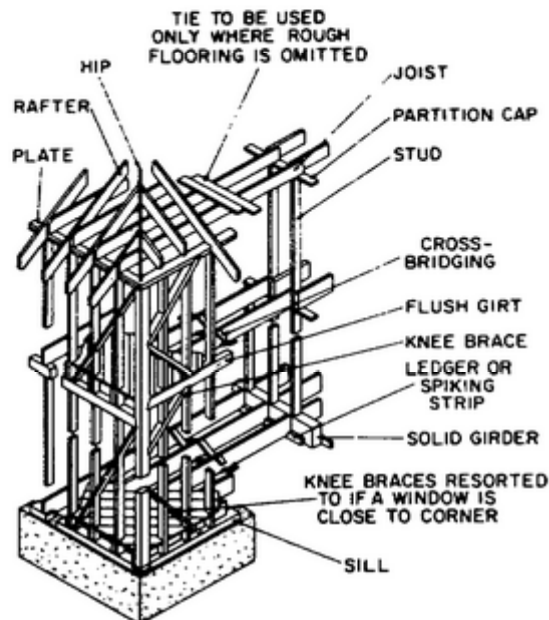


① WESTERN (OR PLATFORM) FRAMING

NOTE
STANDARD SPACING FOR STUDS SHOULD BE 16 INCHES CENTER TO CENTER TO RECEIVE STANDARD SIZE SHEETS OF PLASTERBOARD, SHEETROCK, PLYWOOD AND SO ON. JOISTS ARE ORDINARILY SPACED SIMILARLY UNLESS FURRING STRIPS OR STRAPPING ARE USED. ROUGH FLOORS WHERE LAID DIAGONALLY GIVE ADDITIONAL STRENGTH TO THE STRUCTURE BUT WHERE LAID HORIZONTALLY ECONOMY OF MATERIAL IS OBTAINED. EXTERIOR WALLS SHOULD BE BRACED WITH DIAGONAL BRACES FOR STIFFENING PURPOSES WHEN HORIZONTAL SHEATHING IS USED.



② BALLOON-FRAME CONSTRUCTION



③ BRACED-FRAME CONSTRUCTION

Figure 2-9. Framing or light structure.

bridging is used between the studs. The western frame is preferred for one-story structures, since it permits both the bearing and nonbearing walls, which are supported by the joist, to settle uniformly. Typical components of the western frame are the following:

(1) **Cross-bracing.** Cross-bracing between joists is required to increase the rigidity of the structures.

(2) **Joists.** Joists are laid edgewise to support the floor boards.

(3) **Rafter.** The ribs are run from hip, or ridge, to eaves in the roof.

(4) **Sheathing.** Sheathing is generally applied diagonally to assist in strengthening the structure.

(5) **Sill.** Sills are horizontal members that either rest upon or form the foundation of the house. The sill may be a 4 x 4 or two 2 x 4 pieces spiked together.


(6) **Studs.** Studs are upright beams in the framework of a building. Studs are normally 2 x 4 set 16 inches on centers.

(7) **Plates.** The plate is placed across the tops of the studs. The plate, which is a 4 x 4 or two 2 x 4's spiked together, serves as a lower base for the ends of the roof rafters.


(8) **Posts.** Posts are members set on end to support a wall, girder, or other members of the structure. Corner posts are 4 x 4 inches.

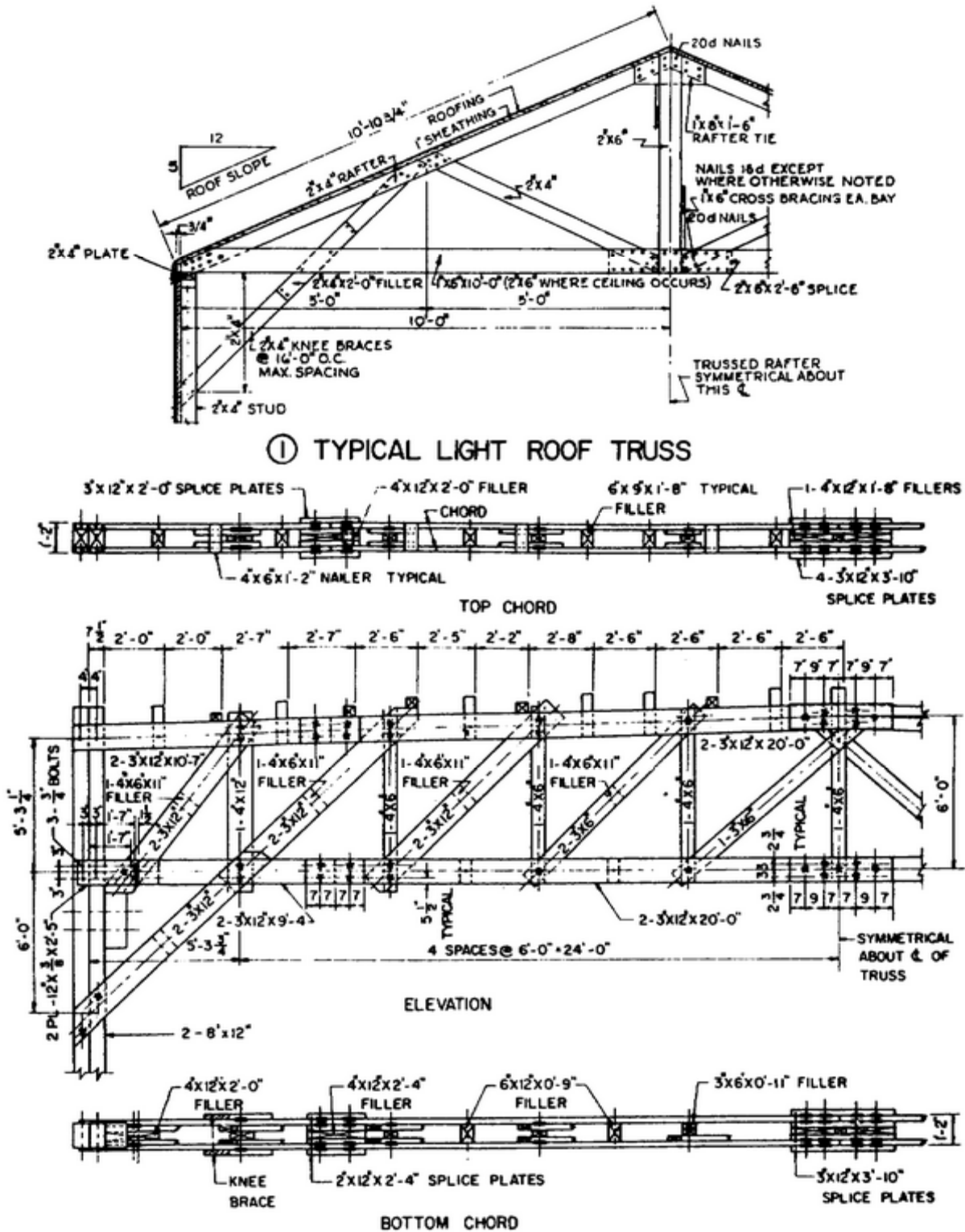
b. Balloon Frame. The balloon frame (2, fig 2-9) is a widely used type of light framing, chiefly because it is economical. The major difference between balloon and braced framing in a multistory building is that in balloon framing the studs run the full length, from sill to rafters. It is customary for second-floor joists to rest on a 1 x 4-inch ribbon that has been set into the studs. Although a balloon frame is less rigid than a braced frame, it represents a saving in labor and material and is quite suitable for two-story structures.

c. Braced Frame. A braced frame (3, fig 2-9) is much more rigid than a balloon frame. Exterior studs extend only between floors and are topped by girts that form a sill for the joists of the succeeding floor. Girts usually are 4 x 6 inches. With the exception of studs, braced-frame members are heavier than those in balloon framing. Sills and corner posts are customarily 4 x 6 inches. Unlike the studs, corner posts extend from sill to plate. Knee braces, usually 2 x 4 inches, are placed diagonally against each side of the corner posts. Interior studding for braced frames is the same as for balloon frame construction.

d. Light Roof Truss. The roof truss spans the area between walls. A typical light roof truss is illustrated in [1], figure 2-10. Observe that only half of the roof truss is shown and the note “trussed rafter symmetrical about this  “ is given. This means that both halves of the truss are identical and there is no need to show both halves to present the complete picture of the truss. Note that the sizes of members and bracing details are given. For example, the knee braces for each half of the light truss are made of 2 x 4's and spaced at a maximum of 16 feet. A note on the drawing instructs you to use 16d nails except where otherwise noted. One of the exceptions for example is the nails designated for the rafter tie which are 20d nails.

2-8. HEAVY FRAMING

a. Heavy framing, such as used in the construction of large warehouses, consists of framing members at least 6 inches in dimension (timber construction). Long, unsupported areas between walls are spanned by built-up roof trusses. A typical heavy roof truss is shown in [2], figure 2-10. Observe again that only half of the roof truss is shown and the note “symmetrical about  of truss” is given to indicate that both halves of the truss are identical. Also note that the size of each member is given together with the splices required, bracing details, and spacing dimensions. For example, the bottom chord for each half of the heavy truss is made up of two 3 x 12-inch x 9-foot, 4-inch long and two 3 x 12-inch x 20-foot-long members connected by 4 x 12-inch x 2-foot, 4-inch-long filler and two 2 x 12-inch x 2-foot, 4-inch splice plates secured by four bolts. The vertical and diagonal braces are connected to the top and



② TYPICAL HEAVY ROOF TRUSS

Figure 2-10. Typical light and heavy roof trusses.

bottom chords with the vertical brace members spaced 6 feet center-to-center; thus, the distance from the centerline of the 4 x 12-inch vertical brace to the centerline of the truss is 24 feet.

b. Members are connected with spikes, bolts, driftpins, or special timber connectors. The split ring is the most commonly used special connector. You should become familiar with all the special connectors and the identifying symbols used in military drawings that are given in figure 2-11. The specific connector to be used is specified in the bill of materials.






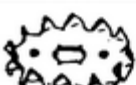
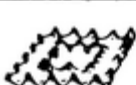
(1) **Spikes.** Spikes are used for smaller sizes of lumber, as in timber trestle construction, to connect horizontal planking to stringers.

(2) **Bolts.** Bolts commonly used in timber construction vary in diameter from 1/4 to 1 1/4

inches. Measured from the underside of the head, lengths range from 1 inch to any length desired. Bolts are threaded, have square heads, and take square or hexagonal nuts. Bolts are placed through predrilled holes, with a washer at each end to increase the bearing area on the wood, and are fastened.

(3) **Driftpins.** Driftpins are large size spikes from 1/2 to 1 1/4 inch in diameter and from 8 to 24 inches long. They are driven into predrilled holes of the same diameter or slightly smaller than the pin diameter.

(4) **Split rings.** Split rings are available in 2 1/2-, 4-, and 6-inch diameter sizes and are used for making wood-to-wood connections with medium and heavy loads. A hole must be drilled for the bolt and a groove made for the ring. If columns are built up of several pieces (for example, three 2 x 12-inch

DESCRIPTION	SYMBOL	ILLUSTRATED USE	PICTORIAL
SPLIT RING	SR	2 1/2 SR	
TOOTHED RING	TR	2TR	
CLAW PLATE, MALE	CPM	2 5/8 CPM	
CLAW PLATE, FEMALE	CPF	3 1/8 CPF	
SHEAR PLATE	SP	4 SP	
BULLDOG, ROUND	BR	3 3/4 BR	
BULLDOG, SQUARE	BS	5 BS	








DESCRIPTION	SYMBOL	ILLUSTRATED USE	PICTORIAL
CIRCULAR SPIKE	CS	3 1/8 CS	
CLAMPING PLATE, PLAIN	CPP	5 x 5 CPP	
CLAMPING PLATE, FLANGED	CPFL	5 x 8 CPFL	
SPIKE GRID, FLAT	SGF	4 1/8 x 4 1/8 SGF	
SPIKE GRID, SINGLE CURVE	SGSC	4 1/8 x 4 1/8 SGSC	
SPIKE GRID, DOUBLE CURVE	SGDC	4 1/8 x 4 1/8 SGDC	
WOOD SPLICE PLATES			

Figure 2-11. Timber construction symbols and connectors.

pieces to make a 6 x 12-inch column), the various pieces are normally fastened together with 4-inch split ring connectors. A 3/4-inch bolt is used in combination with a 4-inch split ring after a high-strength, threaded rod assembly has forced the split ring to penetrate the wood.

2-9. FOUNDATION PLANS

A foundation plan is a top view of the foundation walls or footings showing their area and location.

Foundation walls are dimensioned to their corners and all openings in foundation walls are shown. Footings are located by distance between centerlines and distances from references to boundary lines. Figure 2-12 shows a typical foundation plan when footings are used; the conditions for 20- and 60-foot spans are shown. You can see that the spacing of the footings along the 120-foot span is the same for both conditions. The footing details noted in A2 and B2 on figure 2-12 are shown in figure 2-13. Note that the footing details indicate the size of the

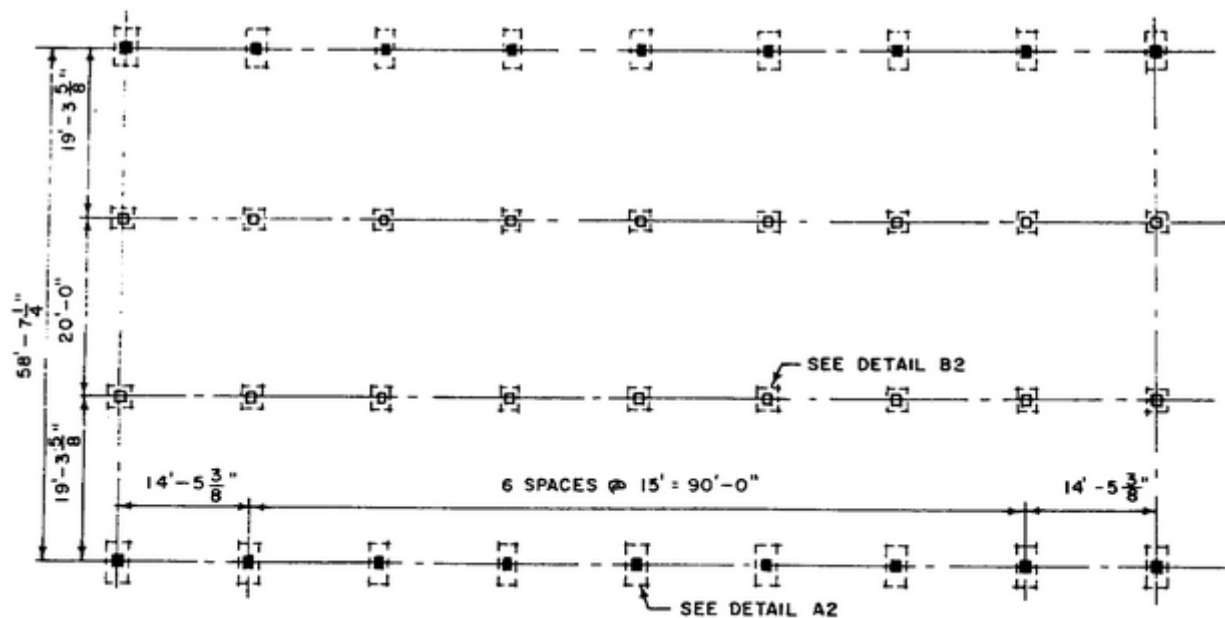


Figure 2-12. Foundation plan.

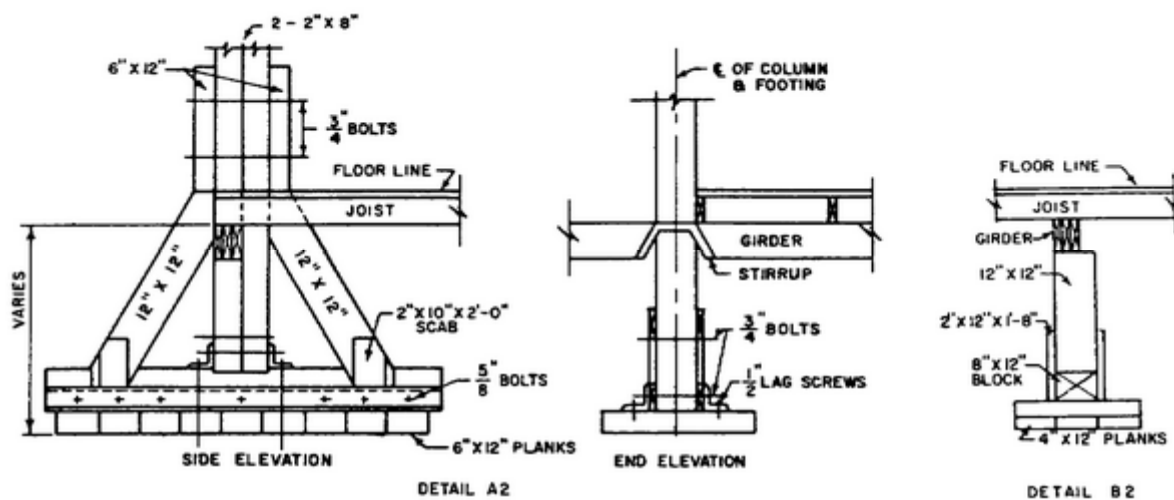


Figure 2-13. Footing details.

various members. (In some cases, the lengths are given, while in others the bill of materials accompanying the print specifies the required lengths of the various members.) Detail A2 shows the type of footing used for the 60-foot span and detail B2 the type of footing for the 20-foot span (both cases to be 120 feet long). You can see that the heavier footing construction includes diagonal bracing (detail A2, side elevation), whereas the footing shown in detail B2 uses scabs only. Note that the height of the footing is marked "varies: which means that the height depends upon the ground elevation.

2-10. FRAMING DRAWINGS

Framing drawings show the arrangement, number, and dimensions of the structural members constituting the building framework. These drawings include floor and roof framing plans and wall framing details.

a. Floor Framing Plan. Framing plans for floors are basically plan views of the girders and joists. The size and spacing of the joists, the size and number of girders, and the bridging are noted on the plan. A typical floor framing plan is shown in figure 2-14. In reading the floor framing plan, you learn that the girders will be made up of three 2 x 6's (or three 2 x 8's for 20-foot spans). The joists will be made up of 2 x 6's and are to be spaced at intervals of 3 feet (2" x 6" at 3'-0" O.C.) with bridging. The joist lengths are joined at the footings with 1 1/2 x 2-foot splices. Note that there are two types of footings indicated. The construction of the footing would be as depicted in figure 2-13.

b. Roof Framing Plans. Framing plans for roofs are similar to floor framing plans and impart the same type of information. The size and arrangement of the rafters, ridge pieces, purlins, and other structural members in the roof are noted on the plan.

c. Wall Framing Details. Wall framing details (also called wall framing plans) present information on the studs, plates, corner posts, bracing, sills, and girts. Door and window framing is shown in wall framing details. The types of doors and windows are identified by notes.

2-11. SECTIONS

a. A section shows how a structure looks when cut vertically by a cutting plane. It is drawn to a large scale showing details of a particular construction feature that cannot be given in the general drawing. The section provides information on height, materials, fastening and support systems, and concealed features.

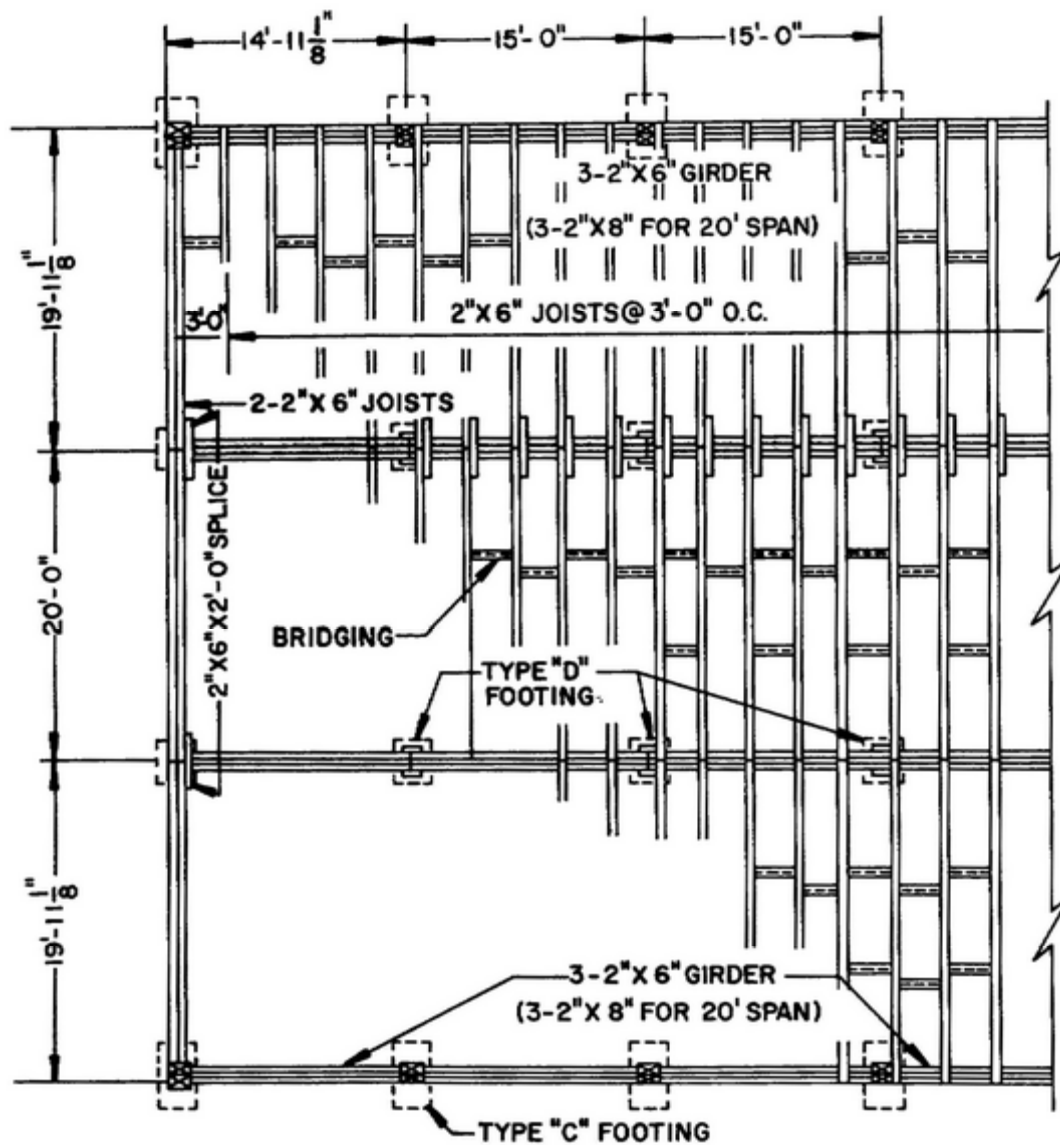
b. Of primary importance to construction supervisors and to the craftsmen who do the actual building are the wall sections. The wall section shows the construction of the wall as well as the way in which structural members and other features are joined to it. Wall sections extend vertically from the foundation bed to the roof. A typical wall section with the parts identified by name and/or size is illustrated in figure 2-15.

2-12. DETAILS

a. Details are large scale drawings which show features that do not appear (or appear on too small a scale) on the plans, elevations, and sections. Details do not have a cutting-plane indication, but are simply noted by a code. The construction at doors, windows, and eaves is usually shown in detail drawings. Figure 2-16 shows some typical door and window wood framing details and an eave detail for a simple type of cornice. Other details which are customarily shown are of sills, girder and joist connections, and stairways.

b. The sill, or soleplate, is the horizontal member on which the studs (vertical members) rest. Do not confuse this member with the sills shown in door and window details. Typical variations of details surrounding sills are illustrated in figure 2-17.

c. Joists are connected to sills and girders by several methods. In modern construction, the method that requires the least time and labor and yet gives the maximum efficiency is used. The same rule is followed in the theater of operations. Figure 2-18 shows three constructions for girders and methods of supporting the inside ends of floor joists; outside ends of floor joists are supported as shown in figure 2-17.

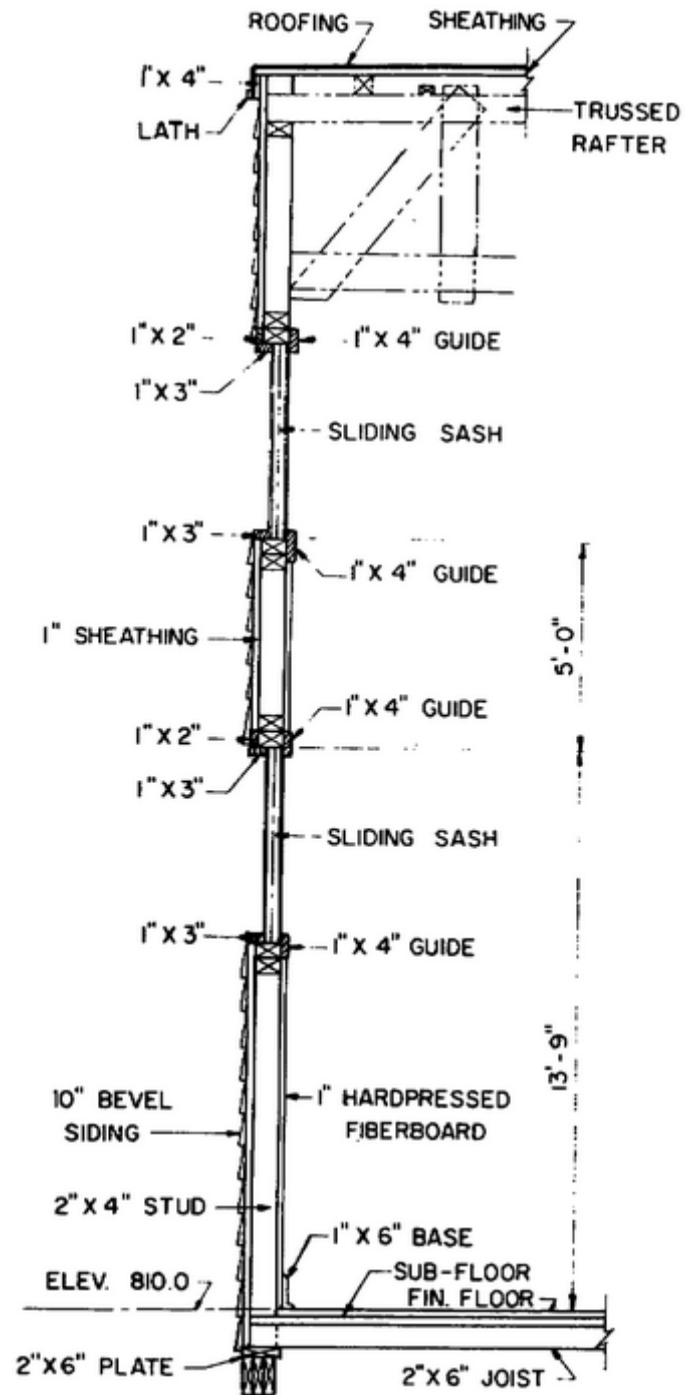


SCALE NO. 4

GRAPHIC SCALE
0 5' 10'
NO. 4

DEPARTMENT OF ARMY OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF ENGINEERS	
	RECREATION BUILDING - 60'X120' FLOOR FRAMING PLAN

Figure 2-14. Floor framing plan.



SECTION A-A

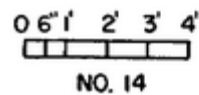


Figure 2-15. Typical wall section.

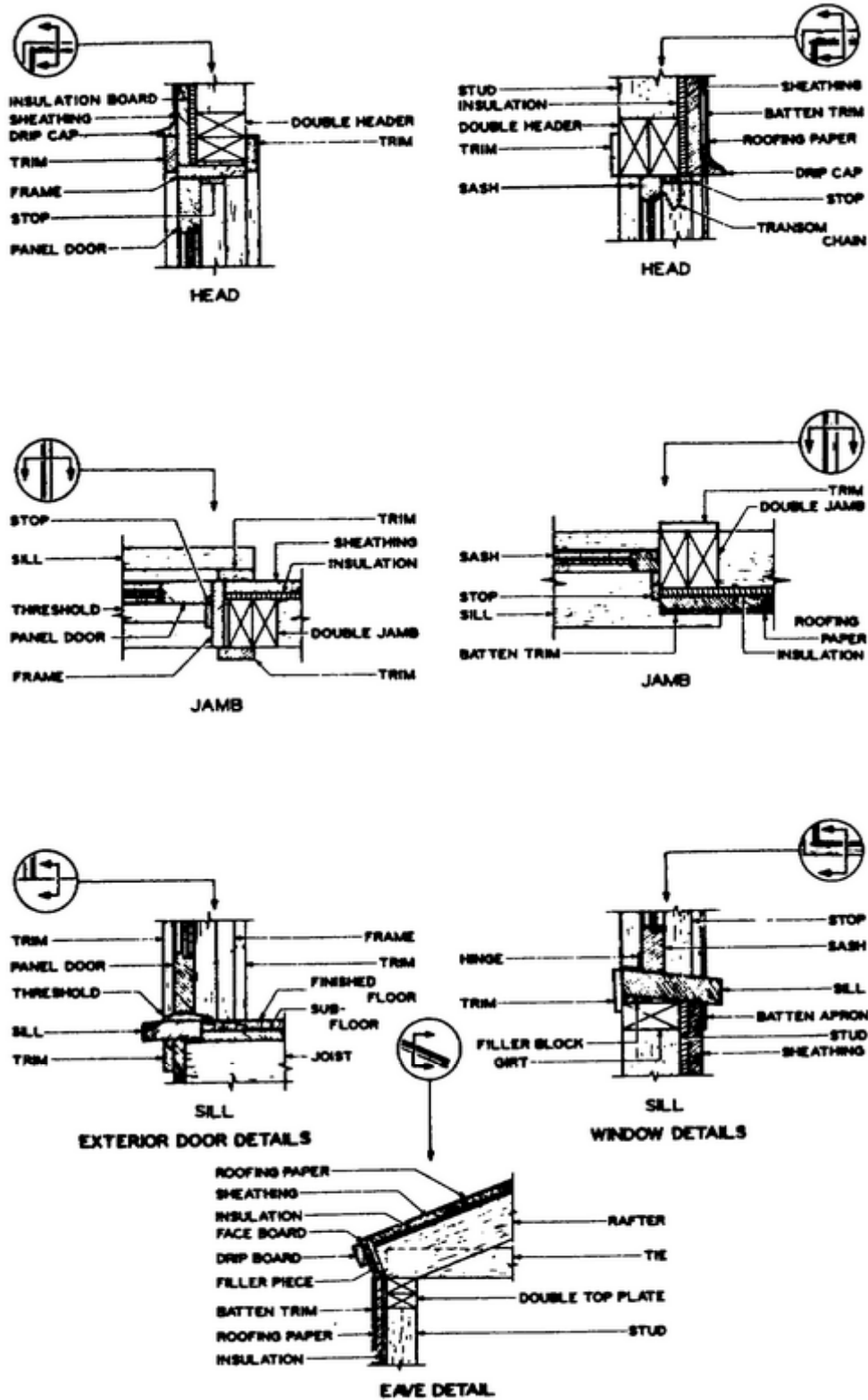


Figure 2-16. Typical door, window, and eave details.

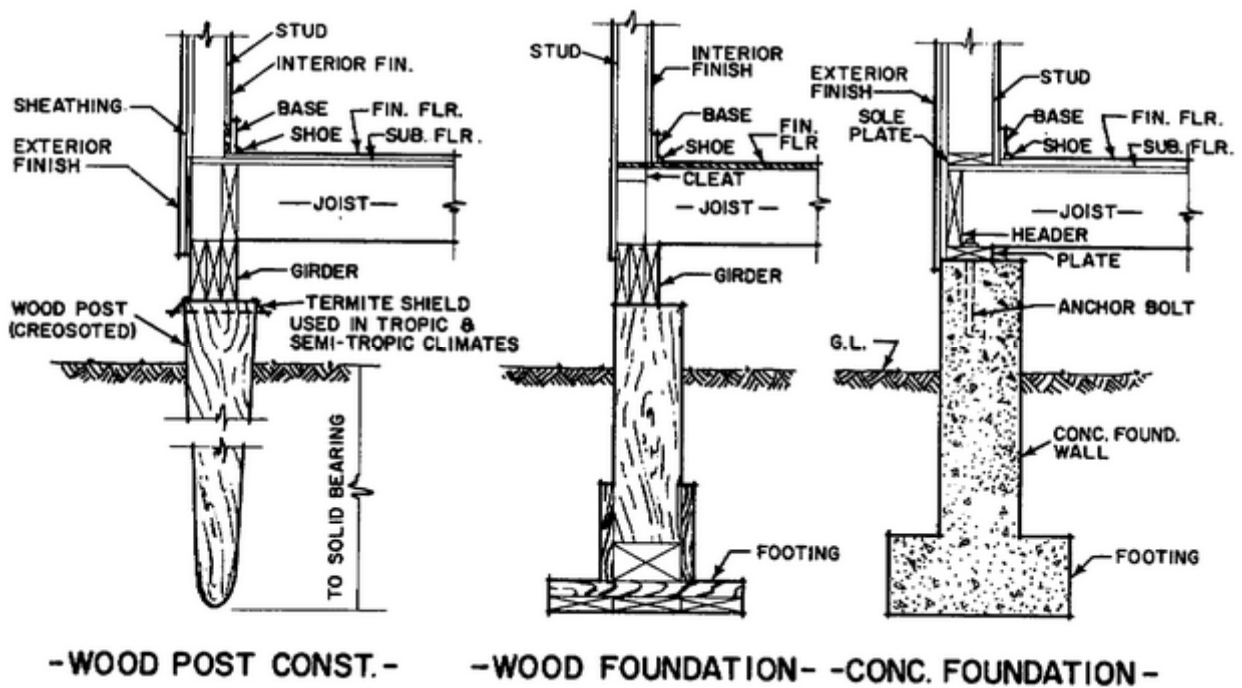


Figure 2-17 Typical sill details.

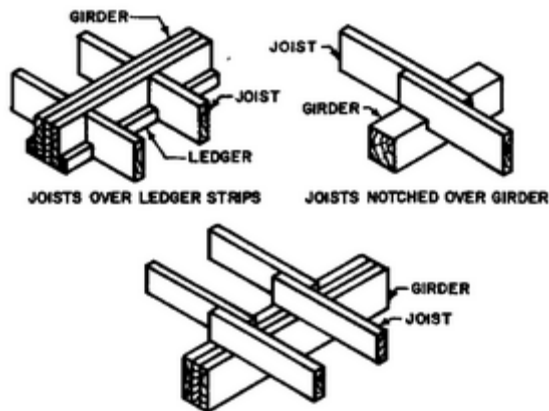


Figure 2-18. Girder and joist connections.

REVIEW QUESTION 3

Which wood is most commonly used for structural framing? (para 2-6, a(2))

REVIEW QUESTION 4

When special connectors are used, how are they referenced on military drawings? (para 2-8, b)(fig 2-11)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 3

Softwoods are worked easily and make suitable material for structural framing. (para 26, a (2))

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 4

As shown under the "illustrated use" column of figure 2-11, special connectors are referenced by lettered symbols. (para 2-8, b)(figure 2-11)

Section III. Concrete and Masonry

2-13. CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION

a. Concrete is a mixture of cement, water, and aggregate. Aggregate is classified as fine and coarse. Fine aggregate refers to sand and coarse aggregate to crushed stone or gravel. Mixed together in specified proportions, fine aggregate fills the voids in coarse aggregate and cement and water form a paste that hardens to bond the aggregate together in a unified mass. Concrete is poured into forms while it is still plastic. Once hard, concrete retains the shape imparted to it by the form.

b. When steel reinforcing rods are embedded in concrete, it is known as reinforced concrete. In general, bar reinforcing steel embedded in the concrete is assumed to provide for all tension and

shear stresses and the concrete resists compressive stress. The bars may be round or square in cross-section, have plain or deformed surfaces, and be manufactured of mild billet or hard rail steel. Welded reinforcing mesh is normally used to prevent cracks and checks in slab or wall concrete.

(1) **Plain and deformed bars.** Plain bars have smooth surfaces. Deformed bars have lugs, ribs, and projections of various types on their surfaces that do not change the cross-sectional dimensions, but provide a better mechanical bond between the bars and concrete.

(2) **Sizes.** Table 2-2 gives the sizes, areas, and weights of plain and deformed reinforcing bars in common use.

Table 2-2. Sizes, Areas, and Weights of Reinforcing Bars

Diameter (inches)	Size ^a (numbers)	Weight (pounds per foot)	Nominal Diameter (inches)	Dimensions of Round Cross- Sectional Area (square inches)	Section Perimeter (inches)
$\frac{1}{4}$	2 ^b	0.167	0.250	0.05	0.786
$\frac{3}{8}$	3	0.376	0.375	0.11	1.178
$\frac{1}{2}$	4	0.688	0.500	0.20	1.571
$\frac{5}{8}$	5	1.043	0.625	0.31	1.963
$\frac{3}{4}$	6	1.502	0.750	0.44	2.356
$\frac{7}{8}$	7	2.044	0.875	0.60	2.749
1	8	2.670	1.000	0.79	3.142
1	9 ^b	3.400	1.128	1.00	3.544
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 ^b	4.303	1.270	1.27	3.990
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 ^b	5.313	1.410	1.56	4.430

^a Bar numbers are based on the number of $\frac{1}{4}$ inches included in the nominal diameter of the bar.

^b Bar number 2 is plain rounds only. Bars numbered 9, 10, and 11 are rounded bars 1-, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ -, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch and are equivalent in weight and nominal cross-sectional area to the old type square bars.

(3) Bending and placing bars. Bars are manufactured in straight lengths and are cut and bent. Bars are bent by the steel fabricator in the shop and sent to the job ready to place without further cutting or bending. The bars are placed and wired in position before concrete is poured.

2-14. REINFORCED CONCRETE DETAILS

a. Location. Location of the reinforcing steel is shown in detail drawings of the various structural members. It is not possible to show the shapes and sizes of the reinforcing bars by the usual orthographic views; therefore, a systematic method of marking is used in which bars are identified by symbols and reference numbers. Once assigned, the same reference number is used to identify the bar in any view in which it appears. Reinforcement size-and-shape details are provided in a separate reinforcement detail drawing which consists of a reinforcement schedule and diagrammatic bar-bending details.

b. Symbols. The symbols used in drawings of reinforced concrete structures include the material symbol for concrete in section and the symbols for reinforcing steel.

(1) Concrete. The symbol for concrete (fig 2-2) indicates coarse and fine aggregate. Fine aggregate is represented by fine dots and coarse aggregate by irregularly drawn triangles.

(2) Reinforcement. Figure 2-19 presents the symbols for typical shapes of reinforcing steel. Figures 2-20 through 2-22 illustrate some applications of these symbols. Note that in addition to their symbolic representation, reinforcing bars parallel to the section are represented by heavy dashed lines; those perpendicular to the section are represented by heavy round or square dots, depending upon the cross-sectional shape of the bars. In notes, the symbols \emptyset and \blacksquare are used to indicate round and square bars, respectively.

c. Reinforcing Schedules. Figure 2-20 shows a portion of a floor framing plan and provides examples of reinforcing schedules for slabs, bar

bends, and beams located on the plan. The slab and beam schedules are keyed to marks on the plan. For example note that D2 is a band mark described on the second line of the slab schedule and 2B6 is beam mark that is the first described in the beam schedule. The bending schedule is keyed to a bar type number given in the slab schedule. The bottom bars of slab band mark D2, for example, are listed in the slab schedule as type R500. The dimensions and; description of the type R500 bar bend are provided in the bending schedule. You should know the following about the data listed in the reinforcing schedules. The No. columns list the quantity requirement. Size refers to the bar diameter, length to the stretchout length, and type to the shape of the bar. Bending details pertain to the outside lengths of the straight and curved segments. The shipping mark provides the dimensions in code, with the first number giving the bar diameter in multiples of 1/8 inch and the remaining three or four numbers the overall bar length in feet and inches. Mark 5246 indicates 5/8-inch diameter and 24 feet, 6 inches long, while mark 31810 denotes 3/8-inch diameter and 18 feet, 10 inches long.

d. Bar-Bending Details. Bar-bending details resemble the diagrammatic shapes shown in figure 2-19. The manner in which bar-bending details are indicated in reinforcing schedules is illustrated in figure 2-20.

e. Section Details. Figures 2-21 and 2-22 illustrate how basic information is given in typical reinforcement section details. You can read both figures in the same manner. The principal difference between these illustrations is that figure 2-21 depicts vertical structures (column, pier, and walls), whereas figure 2-22 depicts horizontal construction items (beams and slab).

(1) Look at the reinforced concrete column in figure 2-21. What you see is a plan and elevation section of a 14 x 14-inch (1' -2" x 1' -2") reinforced concrete column with a 12-inch beam. There are four vertical 3/4-inch diameter round bars on 10-inch centers to be set 2 inches inside the face of the concrete. Lateral ties of 1/4-inch diameter



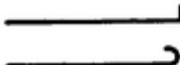

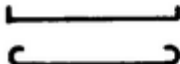















SYMBOL	DESCRIPTION	SYMBOL	DESCRIPTION
BARS, ROUND OR SQUARE		STIRRUP	
STRAIGHT BARS			
	PLAIN ENDS		"U" TYPE
	HOOKED 1 END		
	HOOKED BOTH ENDS		
BENT BARS			
	PLAIN ENDS		"W" TYPE
	HOOKED 1 END		
	HOOKED BOTH ENDS		
COLUMN TIES			TIED TYPE
	SQUARE OR RECTANGULAR		DIRECTION IN WHICH MAIN BARS EXTEND
	CIRCULAR		LIMITS OF AREA COVERED BY BARS
	COLUMN SPIRAL		ANCHOR BOLT
			ANCHOR BOLT SET IN PIPE SLEEVE

Figure 2-19. Reinforcement shapes (symbols).

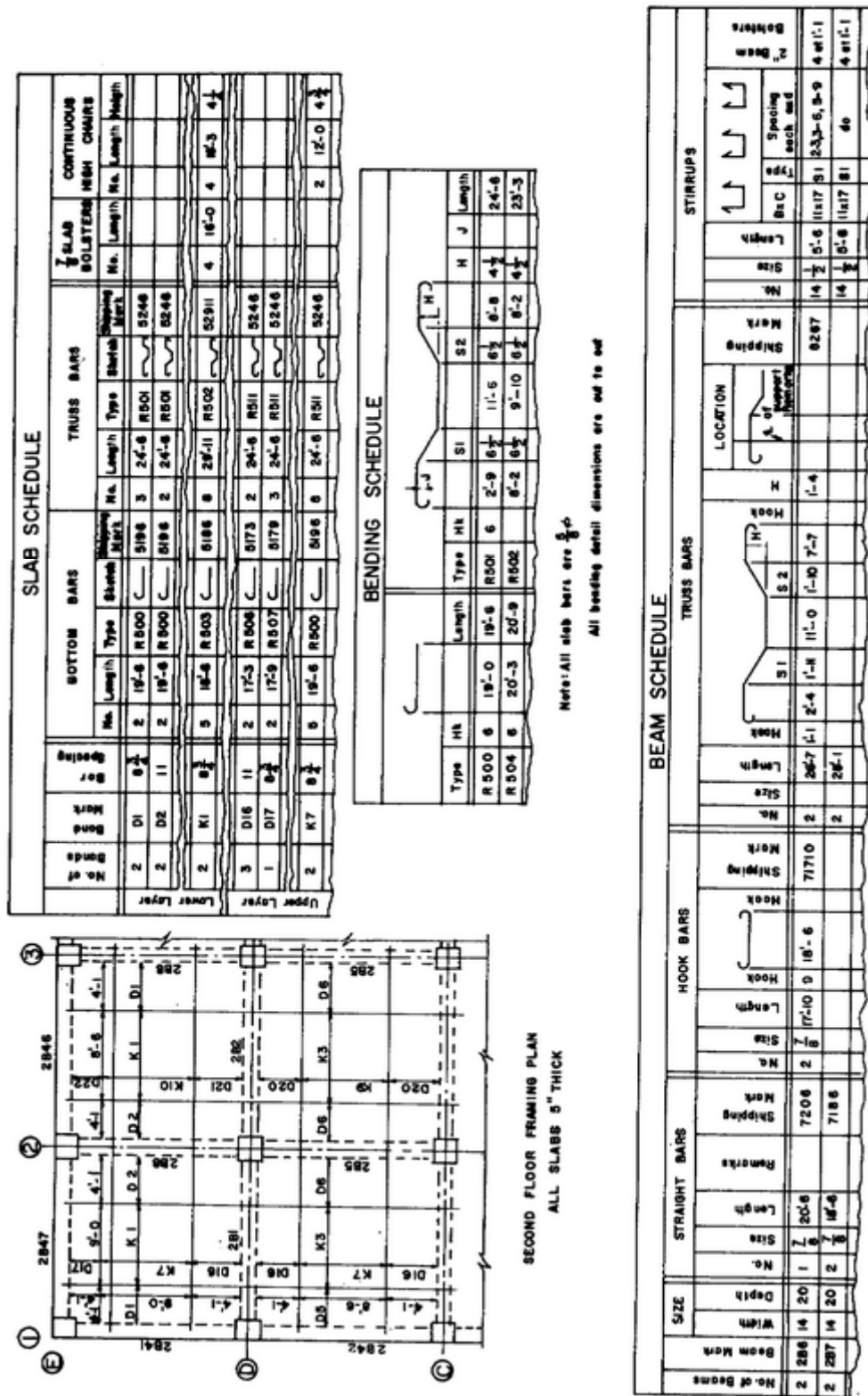
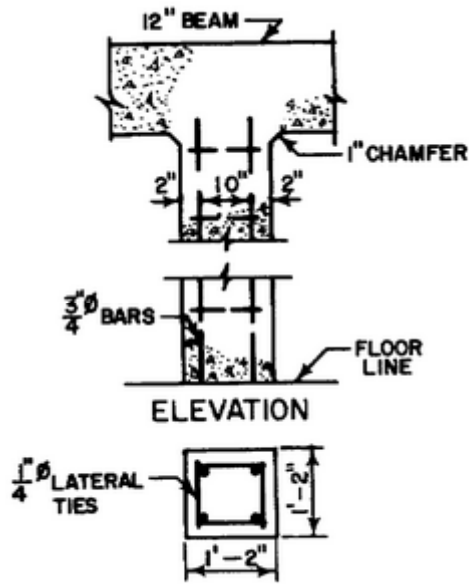
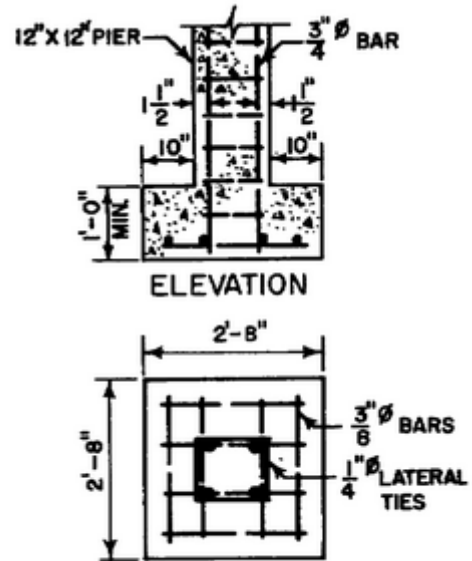


Figure 2-20. Typical reinforcing plan.



SECTION
REINFORCED CONCRETE COLUMN



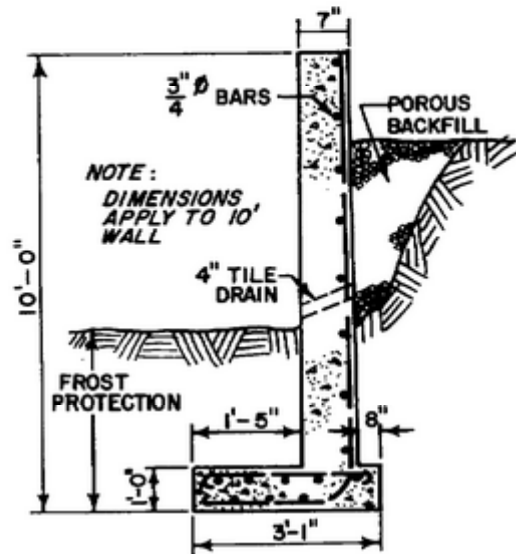
PLAN
REINFORCED CONCRETE PIER

NOTE :

FOUNDATION WALLS
VARY IN THICKNESS
AND SIZE OF FOOTING
DEPENDING ON SOIL
BEARING CAPACITY
AND WEIGHT LOAD.
DEPTH BELOW GROUND
GOVERNED BY MINIMUM
TEMPERATURE AND
BUILDING CODES.



ELEVATION
REINFORCED FOUNDATION WALL



SECTION
REINFORCED RETAINING WALL

Figure 2-21. Common reinforced concrete sections.

round bars are placed around the vertical bars.

(2) Read the elevation and plan sections of the reinforced concrete pier in figure 2-21. Note that the pier consists of a post that is 12 inches square on a footing measuring 2 feet, 8 inches square and 1 foot (minimum) in depth. The post reinforcement consists of four vertical, 3/4-inch diameter round bars on 9-inch centers, with 1/4-inch diameter round bar hoops at specified intervals (designated on the print or in the reinforcing schedule). The footing reinforcement consists of eight 3/8-inch diameter round bars arranged as a mat.

(3) The elevation section of a reinforced foundation wall (fig 2-21) shows vertical, horizontal, and longitudinal bars. Note that the wall thickness is designated by the letter "A" minimum. An explanatory note on figure 2-21 advises that the thickness of the wall and the size of the footing depends upon the soil bearing capacity and weight load. This note also reveals that minimum temperature and building codes determine the depth below ground of a reinforced foundation wall. The vertical bars are 1/2-inch diameter round bars spaced at 9 inches center-to-center and the longitudinal bars are 1/2-inch diameter round bars spaced at 18 inches center-to-center. The horizontal bars in the footing are not specified in figure 2-21, but will be found elsewhere in associated plans.

(4) In viewing the section of a reinforced retaining wall shown in figure 2-21, you will find the thickness and height of the wall and the height and width of the footing. You will also learn that the backfill of the wall is porous, a 4-inch tile drain is provided, and the longitudinal reinforcement bars are to be 3/4 inch round. Note that the wall thickness increases from a thickness of 7 inches at the top to 1 foot at the bottom. Data not given in this section, such as bar lengths and degree of bends, as well as radius of hoops and spacing, is supplied in the plans and schedules of the structure.

(5) An inspection of figure 2-22 will show you the shapes and locations of the steel

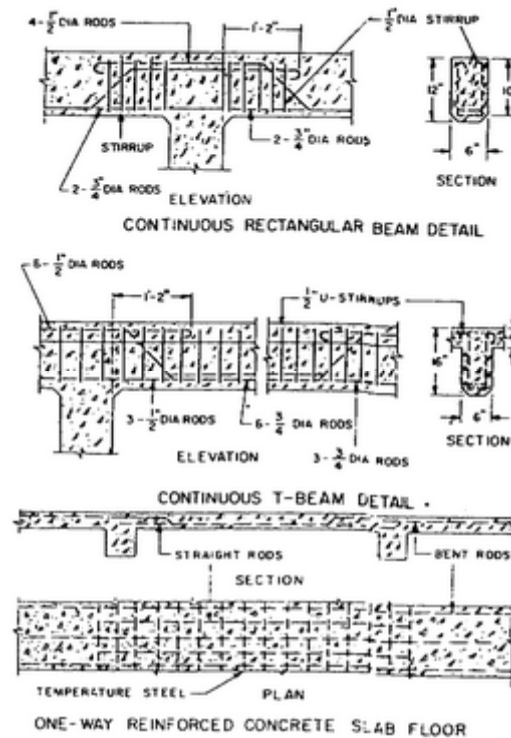


Figure 2-22. Reinforcement details for beam and slab floors.

bars in portions of a continuous rectangular beam, a continuous T-beam, and a span of one-way reinforced concrete slab floor. For example, you can see that the continuous rectangular beam will be reinforced with 4 1/2-inch diameter truss bars, 2 3/4-inch diameter straight rods, and 1/2-inch diameter stirrups. You should also note that the cross-section size of the beam is 6 x 12 inches. Beam length is given in the associated schedule.

2-15. JOINTS AND CONNECTIONS

The manner in which structural members and construction materials are connected to each other is shown in detail drawings.

a. Foundation Walls. Foundation walls are bonded to footings with vertical reinforcing bars called dowels, which are placed in footings and extend upward 3 to 4 feet into the wall (fig 2-21). A wedge-shaped trough,

called a key, is built into spread footings to strengthen the bond between footings and walls that are poured later.

b. Construction Joints. Construction joints are divisions between concrete work performed at periods far enough apart to allow partial hardening. For horizontal work, such as floor slabs, construction joints should be in a vertical plane. For vertical work, such as columns, the joints should lie in a horizontal plane. Although construction joints have no permanent function but to represent a convenient stopping place, they affect the strength of the structure. Their location is indicated in a drawing with a heavy, unbroken line and the note "permissible construction joint" or "construction joint."

c. Construction and Expansion Joints. Concrete usually contracts while hardening and expands after it has hardened because of changes in atmospheric temperature. To provide for the changes in volume that occur at these times, it is necessary to supply joints at frequent intervals.

(1) Contraction joints. Various designs of contraction joints are used. In all cases, however, they represent a clean break between the two sections. No reinforcing extends across the break, which should be filled with an elastic joint filler or protected in some other way. Joint details are shown in a detail drawing.

(2) Expansion joints. Expansion joints are required wherever expansion might cause a concrete slab to buckle. Mastic joints are commonly used to separate sections from each other, thus allowing room for expansion.

d. Masonry Units. Masonry units, such as brick, structural tile, and cinder block, are bonded to foundation walls with mortar. Metal ties may be added to increase the strength of the bond.

e. Grout. Grout is a mixture of cement, sand, and water. Grouting is the process of adding a layer of concrete to concrete that has been poured previously. It is frequently used to bring bearing surfaces, such as column footings and foundation walls, to the exact grade desired. Grout is not

indicated symbolically on drawings, but its thickness is noted.

f. Bearing Plates. When heavily loaded beams or columns bear on masonry or concrete supporting members, metal plates are used to distribute the load and prevent crushing the surface of the supporting member. The plates are made of steel or cast iron and may be held in place by grout, dowels, anchor bolts, or the weight of the supported member.

(1) Beam supports. Bearing plates are used to distribute the loads of horizontal members bearing on masonry walls. Usually these plates are of a simple rectangular shape.

(2) Column supports. Base plates are used to distribute the loads of columns bearing on concrete or masonry piers and footings and may be plain or ribbed. Base plates for pipe columns may have a vertical projection or dowel to fit inside the column to hold the column in place.

g. Anchor Bolts. Anchor bolts are the most frequently used means of connecting wood and steel to concrete (fig 2-17). The end embedded in the concrete is hooked to provide a stronger bond. Anchor bolt dimensions are given in specific notes and state diameter and length. For example, the note "1/2 x 1' -2" anchor bolts at 4' -8" OC" means that the bolts are 1/2 inch in diameter; 1 foot, 2 inches long, and are spaced at intervals of 4 feet, 8 inches measured on centers around the perimeter of the foundation wall.

2-16. MASONRY CONSTRUCTION

Bricks, hollow clay tiles, concrete or cinder blocks, concrete tiles, and stone are used in various combinations in masonry construction. The sizes, shapes, and characteristics of masonry units determine their applicability and use in construction. The specified type and placement of masonry units are shown in plans of masonry structures.

a. Brick Types. Brick types are determined by size, shape, and usage. Figure 2-23 shows the various brick cuts and masonry joints.

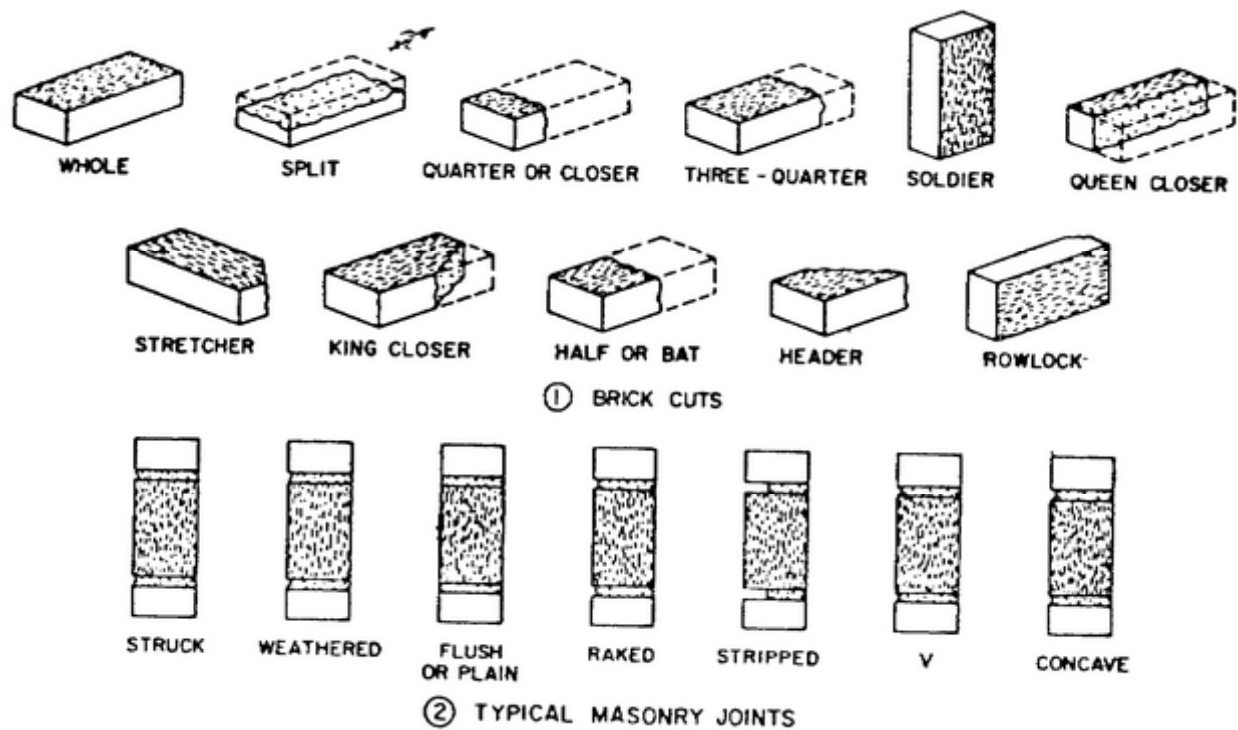


Figure 2-23 Brick cuts and typical masonry joints.

(1) **Whole.** A whole brick is a standard 2 1/4 x 3 3/4 x 8-inch brick.

(2) **Split.** A split brick or soap is a flat half-brick that has been split lengthwise.

(3) **Quarter or closer.** A quarter or closer is a quarter segment of a brick broken across the narrow section at quarter length.

(4) **Three-quarter.** A three-quarter brick is the remainder of a brick with the quarter removed.

(5) **Soldier.** A soldier is a whole brick laid vertically with the narrow face showing in the wall.

(6) **Queen closer.** A queen closer is a brick split lengthwise through its short axis.

(7) **Stretcher.** A stretcher is a whole brick laid flat longitudinally with the wall.

(8) **King closer.** A king closer is a whole brick with a corner clipped off.

(9) **Half or bat.** A half or bat is half a brick.

(10) **Header.** A header is a whole brick laid flat across the wall with one end showing the wall-face.

(11) **Rowlock.** A rowlock is a brick on its edge across two rows of flat brick with one end showing in the wall.

b. Brick Joints. Joints in brick masonry (2, fig 2-23) are formed by the mortar which bonds the masonry together. The type of joint to be used is included in the notes of the plan or is included in the brickwork specification. To finish the joints and make a waterproof bond between brick and mortar in the exterior faces of brickwork, the joints are struck, or ironed, with various shapes of jointers or a pointing trowel. Two typical joints are: the flush or plain joint, in which the mortar joint is struck flush with the exterior of the masonry wall; and the raked joint, in which some of the mortar is removed with the point of the trowel to make brickwork stand out. Other joints are the struck, weathered, stripped, V, or concave joints, all of which are made with the proper use of the trowel.

c. Brick Bond. Bond is an arrangement of built-up bricks or other units laid so that their overlapping thoroughly ties the units together. This is not to be confused with the term "bond" as applied to a bonding material, such as mortar. The specifications or notes in the plans will specify the type of bond required. There are many types of brick bonds. A few typical bonds are shown in figure 2-24. The type bond generally used in military construction is the common bond (1, fig 2-24). Details on masonry construction can be found in TM 5-742, Concrete and Masonry.

d. Hollow Clay Tiles. Hollow clay tiles are units of burned clay constructed with hollow cores and laid in cement mortar. Their use may be indicated in the plans or the specifications for the construction of partitions, furring, and outside walls faced either with stucco or brick tied to the tile by headers or metal ties. Plans of small military buildings of hollow clay will normally show the exterior walls to be tile without brick facing. Some common types and sizes of hollow clay tiles with which you should become familiar are illustrated in figure 2-25.

e. Concrete Blocks and Tiles and Cinder Blocks. Concrete blocks and tiles are solid or hollow molded units of portland cement and fine aggregates and are laid in cement mortar. Cinder blocks are lightweight units of cinders with portland cement and sand made to the same forms and dimensions as concrete blocks. These masonry units usually are made in standard sizes of various thicknesses, with the most common being 8 x 8 x 16-inch nominal size. The nominal size allows for the mortar joint. Note the typical concrete masonry units shown in figure 2-26. Concrete blocks and tiles and cinder blocks are used for walls, partitions, and foundations and can be used for low retaining walls. The required types of blocks or tiles and their designated use in construction are given in notes or specifications; the units themselves are not shown in the plans.

f. Stone. When used as found in the field or quarry, stone is called rubble. When cut and shaped into fairly regular forms, it is called squared stone or ashlar. When cut into rectangular blocks, it is known as cut stone. Stone masonry is composed of either solid stone or stone backed with other types of

masonry and is laid in mortar to a specified type of pattern consistent with the type of stone available in military construction. In theater of operations construction, stone masonry is normally used only in foundation walls, retaining walls, piers, and drainage structures. In the building of military structures, stone as a building unit is seldom used unless other materials are difficult to obtain.

2-17. MASONRY CONSTRUCTION DRAWINGS

The most common use of masonry is in wall construction.

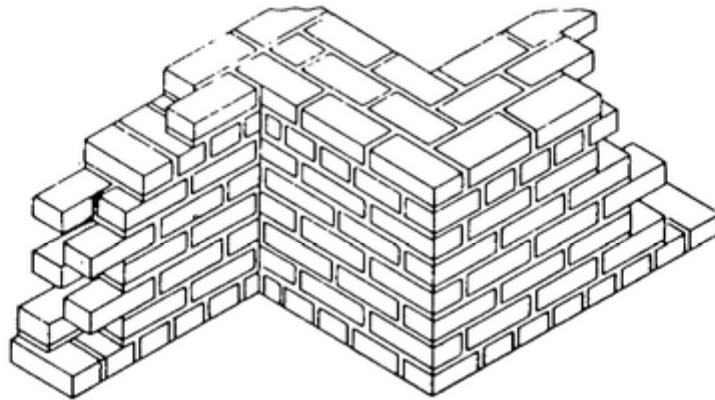
a. Types of Masonry Walls. The principal types of masonry walls are bearing, curtain, veneer, and hollow walls.

(1) Bearing walls. A bearing wall is one that supports a vertical load other than its own weight; its thickness is regulated by its height. The minimum thickness of a brick bearing wall for a dwelling is 8 inches; for buildings such as warehouses, which carry heavy loads, the minimum thickness is 12 inches.

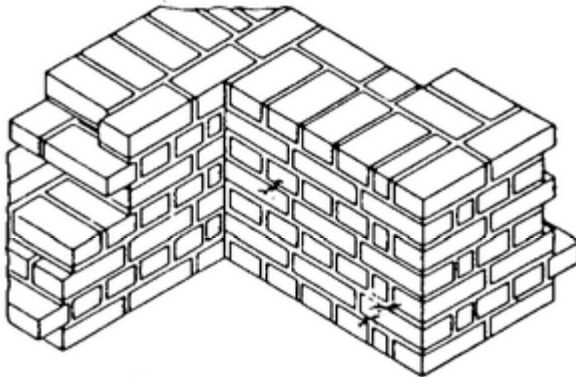
(2) Curtain walls. A curtain wall is a masonry wall enclosing a framework of steel or reinforced concrete; it is not a bearing wall. The curtain wall may support its own weight or may be supported at intervals on the frame of a building. The minimum thickness of a brick curtain wall is 8 inches.

(3) Veneer. Veneer implies a masonry facing over an exterior bearing wall. The veneer is not self-supporting and is fastened to the frame of the building with metal clips spaced at specified intervals. Some examples of masonry veneer are stone on a wood frame, brick on a wood frame, or brick on cement tile.

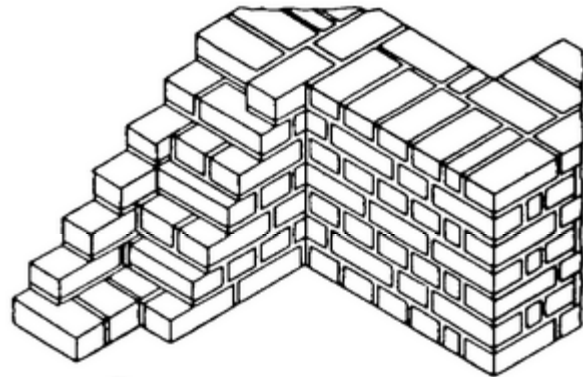
(4) Hollow walls. Buildings with masonry walls are occasionally constructed with parallel walls separated by an air-space. Hollow wall or cavity construction permits plaster to be placed directly on the interior wall without first building a backing-out from the wall.



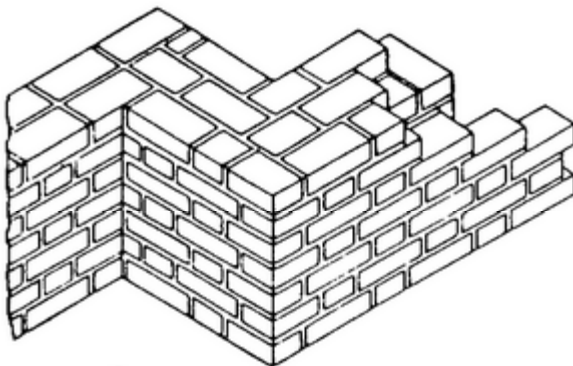
① COMMON BOND



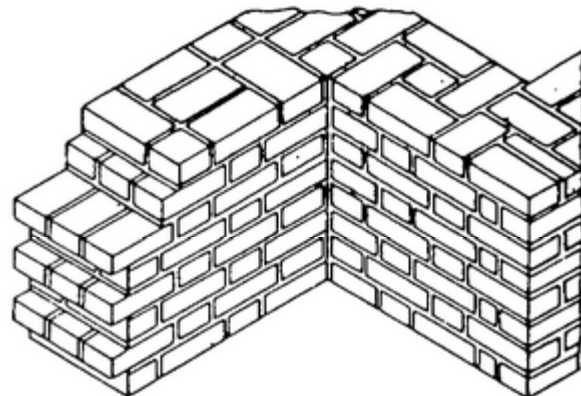
② ENGLISH BOND
COMMON BOND BACK



③ ENGLISH CROSS BOND
COMMON BOND BACK

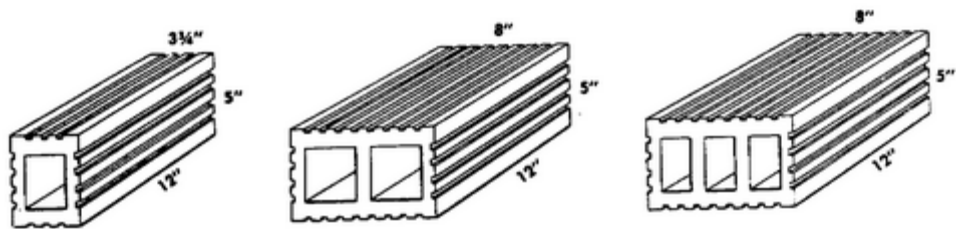


④ SINGLE FLEMISH BOND
DUTCH CORNER

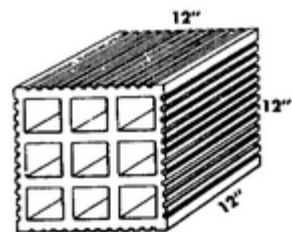
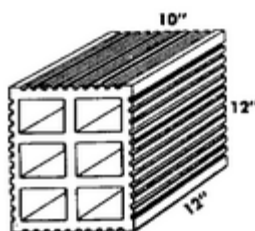
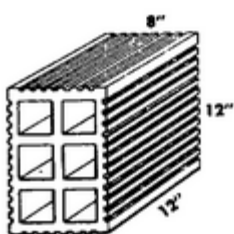
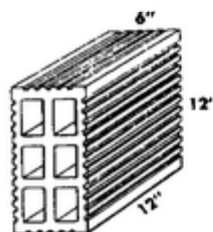
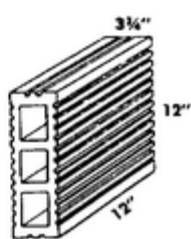


⑤ DOUBLE FLEMISH BOND
ENGLISH CORNER

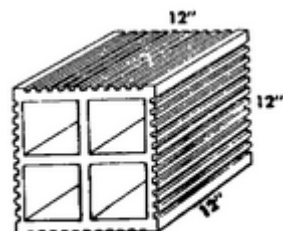
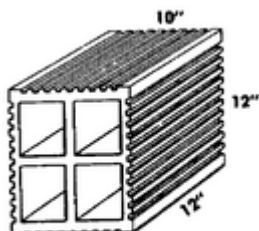
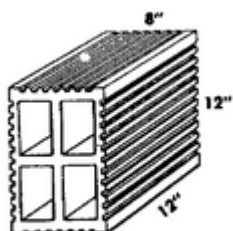
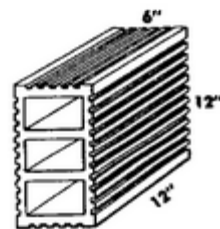
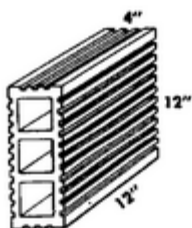
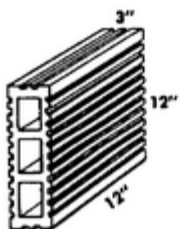
Figure 2-24. Common types of brick bonds.



1 Standard tile for side construction



2 Standard tile for end construction



3 Standard tile for partitions

Figure 2-25. Types of hollow clay construction tile.

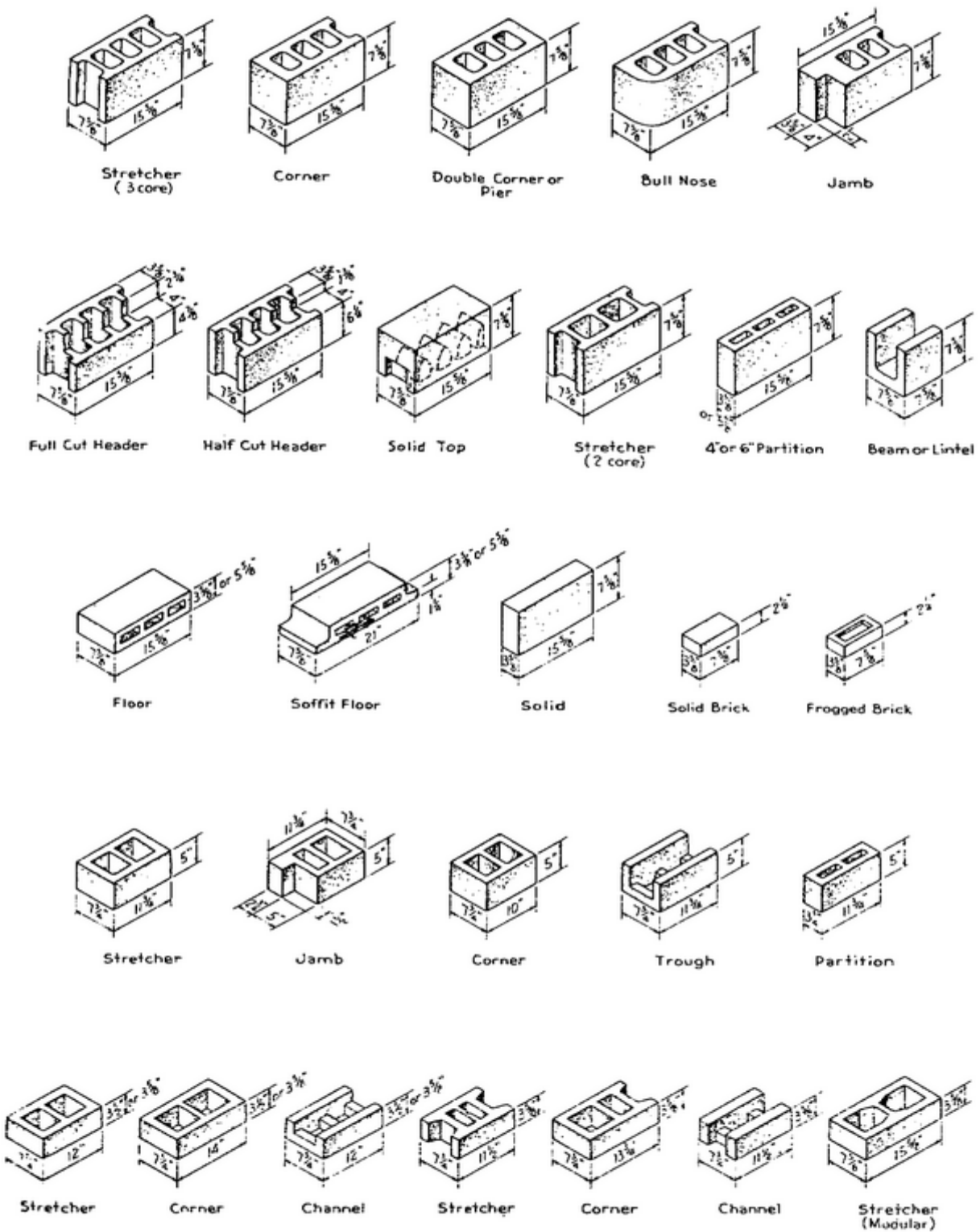


Figure 2-26. Standard types of building blocks.

b. Plans. Symbols, dimensions, and notes are used in a plan view to show location thickness, and types of masonry walls. Dimensions give the overall length and width as well as the location and width of all doors and window openings. The double-line wall symbol is drawn to scale and the appropriate section symbol is used to indicate the masonry material graphically. Brick walls are dimensioned to the outside corner in plan views.

c. Elevation. Door and window openings are drawn to scale. Wall material is indicated by a few courses of brick, block, stone, or tile, as required. The number and dimensions of courses are shown in elevations between finished floor lines, from finished floor line to the bottom of a window opening, and to the other vertical construction points from datum lines as required. Bricks above doors and windows are in rowlock bond. Lintels may be used in lieu of rowlock bonded bricks above doors and windows (fig 2-27).

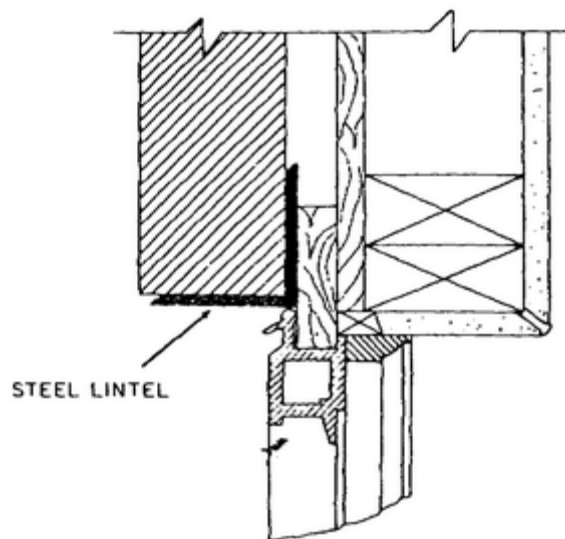


Figure -2-27. Typical steel lintel detail.

d. Sections. The details of masonry construction are indicated in wall sections (fig 2-28) drawn to large scale (3/4 inch = 1 foot or 1 1/2 inches = 1 foot). Construction details are shown at the building sill, head, jamb, sills of doors and windows, and at the eaves. Additional sections are shown

when there are departures from the typical, such as variations of roof and floor framing into the masonry wall. Large-scale wall sections show the actual sizes of masonry units to represent joints by a space to scale between unit outlines, and to show all items exactly to scale in order that mechanics will have a clear picture. Joint dimension, masonry material, and any details of construction requiring explanation are explained by specific notes or dimensions.

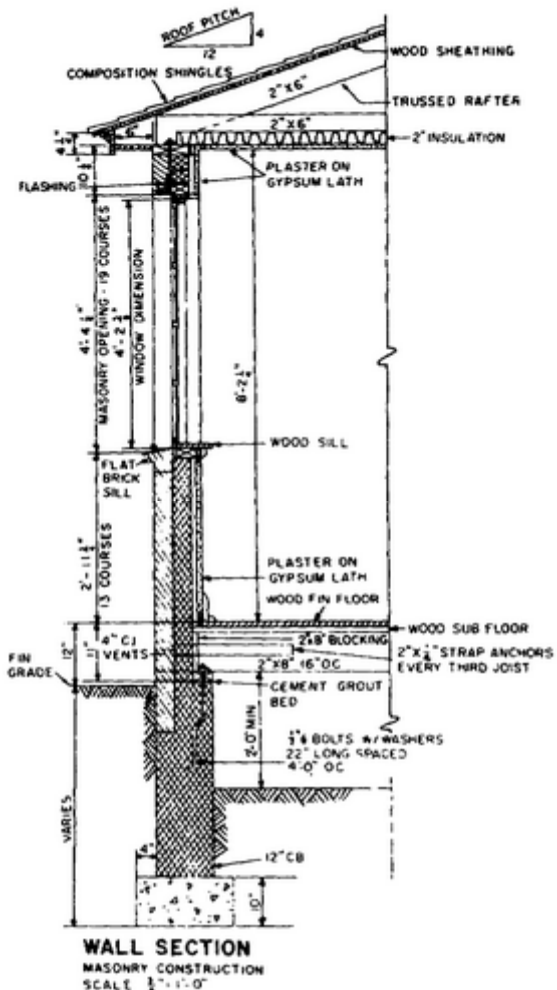


Figure 2-28 Masonry construction wall section.

REVIEW QUESTION 5

The location of reinforcing steel is shown in drawings of the various structural members. In what manner are reinforcing bars identified on a floor framing plan? (para 2-14, **a**)(fig 2-20)

REVIEW QUESTION 6

When an additional concrete layer is added to concrete which has been poured previously, the additional layer is called grout. When grout is used, what information will appear on the drawing? (para 2-15, **e**)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 5

On floor framing plans, such as the one shown in figure 2-20, reinforcing bars are identified by reference numbers. Data pertaining to the bars will be explained in various schedules next to the reference number. (para 2-14, a)(fig 2-20)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 6

There is no symbol for grout. Whenever it is used, the grout thickness is noted. (para 2-15, e)

Section IV. Structural Steel

2-18. INTRODUCTION

Structural members are normally cut and fitted in special fabricating shops and transported to the building site for final assembly and erection. Steel structures are composed of rolled-steel shapes used either singly or built up to form members. In the field, members are erected in their relative positions, fastened temporarily with bolts and driftpins, and permanently connected with rivets, bolts, or by welding.

a. Structural Shapes and Symbols. Structural steel drawings show the shapes and sizes of the steel used and the details of assembly of the parts. Note the sections of common rolled-steel shapes shown in figure 2-29. The symbols used to identify the shapes in notes, dimensions, and bills of material are shown in parentheses.

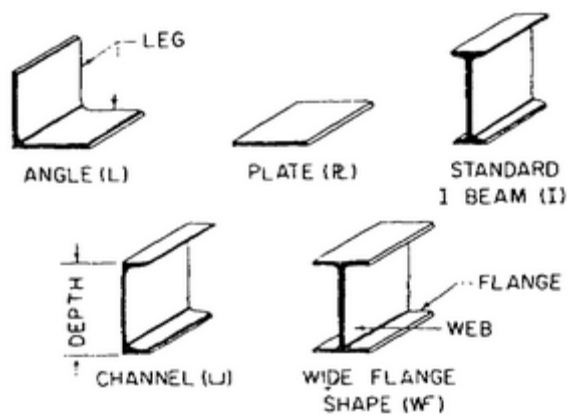


Figure 2-29. Common rolled-steel shapes and symbols.

(1) Angles (L). The angle is a standard structural shape whose cross-section resembles the letter L. Angles are used singly or in combinations of two or four angles to form main members. They are also used to connect two main members or parts of members together. Angles are identified by the dimensions of their legs, measured in inches along the outside or backs of the legs. The sequence in which dimensions of angles are noted is: symbol followed by dimension of wider leg first and thickness of the legs third (both legs always have equal thickness). Thus L7 x 4 x 1/2 indicates that the steel section is an angle whose legs are 7 inches and 4 inches wide and 1/2 inch thick.

(2) Plates (P). Plates are noted by width, thickness, and length. Thus, 1 P 11 x 3/8 x 2'-7" indicates that the item is a single plate whose dimensions are 11 inches at its widest point, 3/8 inches thick, and 2 feet, 7 inches at its longest point.

(3) Standard I-Beam (I). The I-beam is a standard structural shape whose cross-section is in the form of the letter I. I-beams are used as beams, columns, truss members, and any other application where their shape makes their use desirable. An I-beam is identified by its nominal depth in inches and weight in pounds per foot of length. For example, the notation 15 I 42.9 designates an I-beam that has a nominal depth of 15 inches and weighs 42.9 pounds per linear foot.

(4) Wide-flange shapes (WF). The wide-flange shape is a standard structural shape whose cross-section is in the form of

the letter H. Wide-flange shapes have the same general use as I-beams; however, wide-flange shapes have greater strength and adaptability than I-beams. Identification of a wide-flange shape is by its nominal depth and weight per foot. For example, 24 WF 76 designates a wide-flange section that is 24 inches deep and weighs 76 pounds per linear foot.

(5) Channels (C). The channel is a structural shape whose cross-section is similar to a squared letter C. Channels are principally used in locations where a single flat face without outstanding flanges on one side is required. The channel is not very efficient as a beam or column when used alone, but efficient built-up members may be constructed of channels assembled together with other structural shapes and connected by rivets or welds. Channels are identified by their depth and weight per foot. For

example, the notation 9 C 13.4 indicates that the channel has a nominal depth of 9 inches and weighs 13.4 pounds per linear foot.

b. Actual Size and Weight Versus Nominal Size Classification. It is important to note that the process for rolling structural-steel shapes permits a wide range of actual sizes and weights within a single nominal size classification. Examples of actual dimensions for the various weights of typical American Standard channels, beams, and wide-flange shapes are given in tables 2-3, 2-4, and 2-5, respectively. It may be necessary to refer to tables such as these for additional information about specific situations.

Table 2-3. Detail Dimensions of Typical American Standard Channels.

Depth of Section (inches)	Weight per Foot (pounds)	Flange		Web
		Width (inches)	Mean Thickness (inches)	Thickness
	13.0	2½	⅜	⅞
	10.5	2	⅜	⅞
	8.2	1½	⅜	⅞

Table 2-4. Detail Dimensions of Typical American Standard Beams

Depth of Section (inches)	Weight per Foot (pounds)	Flange		Web
		Width (inches)	Mean Thickness (inches)	Thickness (inches)
10	35.0	5	½	⅝
	25.4	4½	½	⅝

Table 2-5. Detail Dimensions of Typical Wide-Flange Shapes

Nominal Size (inches)	Weight per Foot (pounds)	Depth (inches)	Flange		Web
			Width (inches)	Thickness (inches)	Thickness (inches)
16 x 11½	96	16½	11½	¾	¾
16 x 8½	88	16½	11½	11/16	½
	78	16½	8¾	¾	11/16
	71	16½	8½	11/16	½
	64	16	8½	11/16	11/16
16 x 7	58	15½	8½	¾	11/16
	50	16¼	7½	¾	¾
	45	16½	7	11/16	¾
	40	16	7	½	11/16
	36	15½	7	11/16	11/16

2-19. CONNECTIONS

The building of any structure consists of joining component parts. The parts are connected with bolts and nuts or by welding.

a. Bolts and Nuts. In general, data concerning bolt dimensions is obtained from standard tables. However, bolts and nuts are seldom shown on detail drawings. Bolt and nut connection is the primary type used in the field. Bolts and nuts are used because they require less skill and less tools. On assembly drawings, where bolts and nuts are encountered most frequently, approximate dimensions are adequate. Thread specifications are given in a note. The format or order of the specification note is in accordance with accepted standards. Figure 2-30 indicates the order of the specifications note for a typical American Standard thread and explains interpretation. Referring to figure 2-30, you will see that the first number of the note (3/4) denotes the nominal size of the major diameter and the number following the first dash (10) indicates that there are 10 threads per inch. Also apparent is that the letters NC indicate the thread series (National Coarse) and the last number (2) the class of fit (class of thread and tolerance). The letters LH following the last number designate left-hand threads, while notes without LH designate right-hand threads. The most widely used thread-series are the American Standard National Coarse (NC) and National Fine (NF). The NF series have more

threads per inch than the NC series as shown in table 2-6.

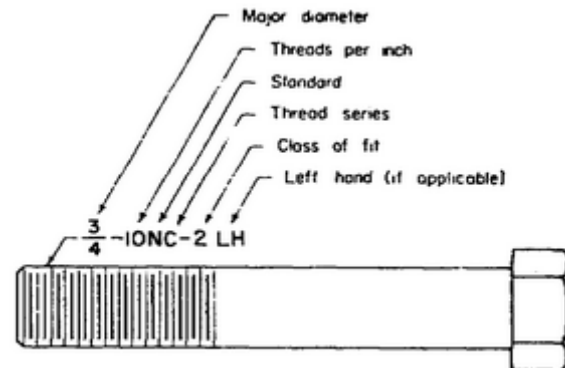


Figure 2-30. Thread specification note.

b. Rivets. Rivets are rarely used as connectors in the field. Some members may be fabricated in the shop with rivet connectors and then brought to the field for bolt and nut or weld connecting. All holes for rivets are punched or drilled in the fabricating shop whether the rivets are to be driven in the shop or in the field. Rivets that will be placed and driven in the shop to connect structural members are indicated on the print by a shop rivet symbol (○). Structural members to be connected at the job site are indicated on the print by a field rivet symbol (●). Conventional shop and field

Table 2-6. American National Coarse (NO and National Fine (NF) Series
(Number of Threads per Inch)

Size of Major Diameter	NC Series	NF Series	Size of Major Diameter	NC Series	NF Series
0	—	80	$\frac{1}{8}$	10	16
1	64	72	$\frac{3}{16}$	9	14
2	56	64	1	8	14
3	48	56	$1\frac{1}{8}$	7	12
4	40	48	$1\frac{1}{4}$	7	12
5	40	44	$1\frac{3}{8}$	6	12
6	32	40	$1\frac{1}{2}$	6	12
8	32	36	$1\frac{3}{4}$	5	
10	24	32	2	$4\frac{1}{2}$	
12	24	28	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	
$1\frac{1}{2}$	20	28	$2\frac{1}{2}$	4	
$1\frac{3}{8}$	18	24	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	4	
$1\frac{1}{2}$	16	24	3	4	
$1\frac{3}{4}$	14	20	$3\frac{1}{4}$	4	
$1\frac{7}{8}$	13	20	$3\frac{1}{2}$	4	
2	12	18	$3\frac{3}{4}$	4	
$2\frac{1}{2}$	11	18	4	4	

Note: Number 11 size NF series is not given.

rivet symbols are shown in figure 2-31. Note that the rivet head diameter is used to represent shop rivets and the rivet shank diameter to represent field rivets. The symbol for field rivets indicates a hole in which rivets are to be placed. The intersection of pitch and gage lines, represented by centerlines on detail drawing made to small scale, shows the placement of the rivets.

Standard forms of rivet heads are shown in figure 2-32.

c. Welding. Welding is used in the rear area as a method permanent joint between two metal parts. Welding requires a great amount of equipment and, therefore, has only limited use in the front areas. Welding has its own language of symbols for use on drawings. The welding symbol is a composite of symbols and data indicating the requirements of a given weld. As you can see in figure 2-33, the basic welding symbol is simply a reference line and an arrow. This basic welding symbol serves as the base on which all symbol information is placed in standard locations. Symbols used to indicate the type of weld (called basic weld symbols) and supplementary weld symbols are shown in figure 2-34. The weld symbols in their respective positions on the reference line and

arrow, together with dimensions and other data, form the welding symbol. The assembled welding symbol consists of the eight elements listed below, or such of these elements as are necessary. The elements of the welding symbol have standard locations with respect to each other as shown in figure 2-35.

(1) **Reference line.** This is the base for all data and symbols comprising the welding symbol.

(2) **Arrow.** The arrow points to the location of the weld.

(3) **Basic weld symbol.** This symbol designates the type of weld. Its location on the reference line indicates the side of the object to be welded; that is, arrow side, other side, or both sides.

(4) **Dimensions and other data.** The information provided by this element of the welding symbol is given on figure 2-35, identified by the symbols S, R, and (N).

(5) **Supplementary symbols.** This shows the supplementary weld symbols (fig 2-34). The supplementary symbols on figure 2-35 indicate a field weld, to weld all around,

Shop Rivets, Two Full Heads

Shop Rivets, Countersunk and Chipped, Near Side

Shop Rivets, Countersunk and Chipped, Far Side

Shop Rivets, Countersunk and Chipped, Both Sides

Shop Rivets, Countersunk but Not Chipped, Max. $\frac{1}{4}$ in. High Near Side

Shop Rivets, Countersunk but Not Chipped, Max. $\frac{1}{4}$ in. High Far Side

Shop Rivets, Countersunk but Not Chipped, Max. $\frac{1}{4}$ in. High Both Sides

Shop Rivets, Flattened to $\frac{1}{4}$ in. High for $\frac{1}{2}$ in. and $\frac{3}{4}$ in. Rivets Near Side

Shop Rivets, Flattened to $\frac{1}{4}$ in. High for $\frac{1}{2}$ in. and $\frac{3}{4}$ in. Rivets Far Side

Shop Rivets, Flattened to $\frac{1}{4}$ in. High for $\frac{1}{2}$ in. and $\frac{3}{4}$ in. Rivets Both Sides

Shop Rivets, Flattened to $\frac{3}{8}$ in. High for $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, and 1 in. Rivets Near Side

Shop Rivets, Flattened to $\frac{3}{8}$ in. High for $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, and 1 in. Rivets Far Side

Shop Rivets, Flattened to $\frac{3}{8}$ in. High for $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, and 1 in. Rivets Both Sides

Field Rivets, Two Full Heads

Field Rivets, Countersunk and Chipped, Near Side

Field Rivets, Countersunk and Chipped, Far Side

Field Rivets, Countersunk and Chipped, Both Sides

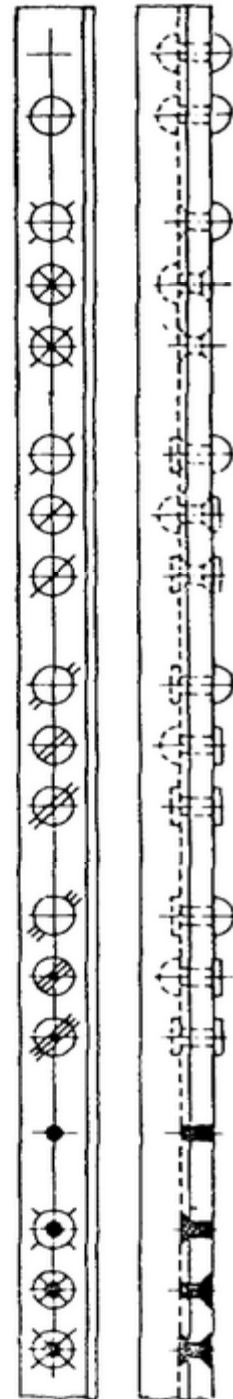


Figure 2-31. Rivet conventions.

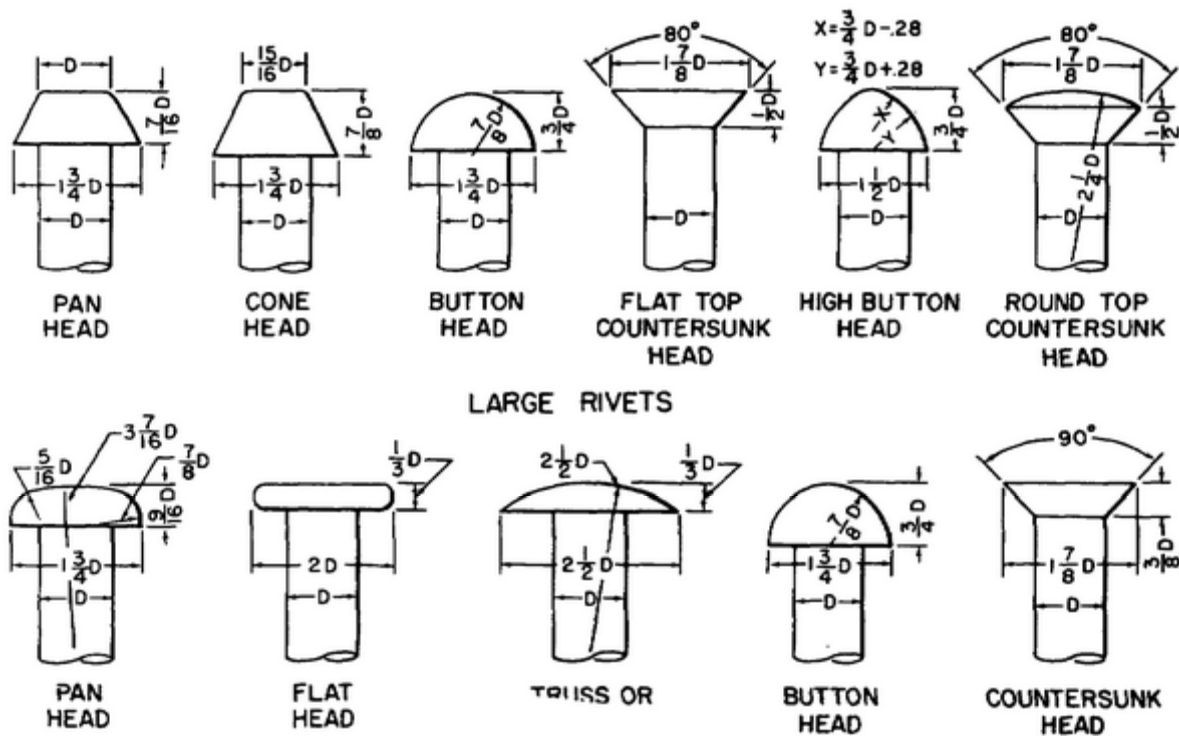


Figure 2-32. Forms of rivet heads.

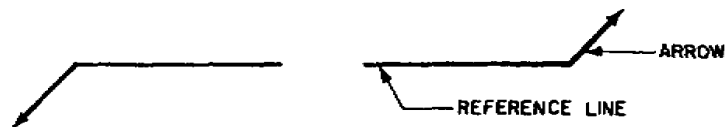


Figure 2-33. Basic welding symbol.

FILLET	PLUG OR SLOT	ARC-SPOT OR ARC-SEAM	GROOVE							BACK OR BAKING	MELT-THRU	SUR-FACING	FLANGE	
			SQUARE	V	BEVEL	U	J	FLARE-V	FLARE-BEVEL				EDGE	CORNER

BASIC ARC AND GAS WELD SYMBOLS

TYPE OF WELD			
SPOT	PROJECTION	SEAM	FLASH OR UPSET

BASIC RESISTANCE WELD SYMBOLS

WELD ALL AROUND	FIELD WELD	CONTOUR	
		FLUSH	CONVEX

SUPPLEMENTARY SYMBOLS

Figure 2-34. Basic and supplementary weld symbols.

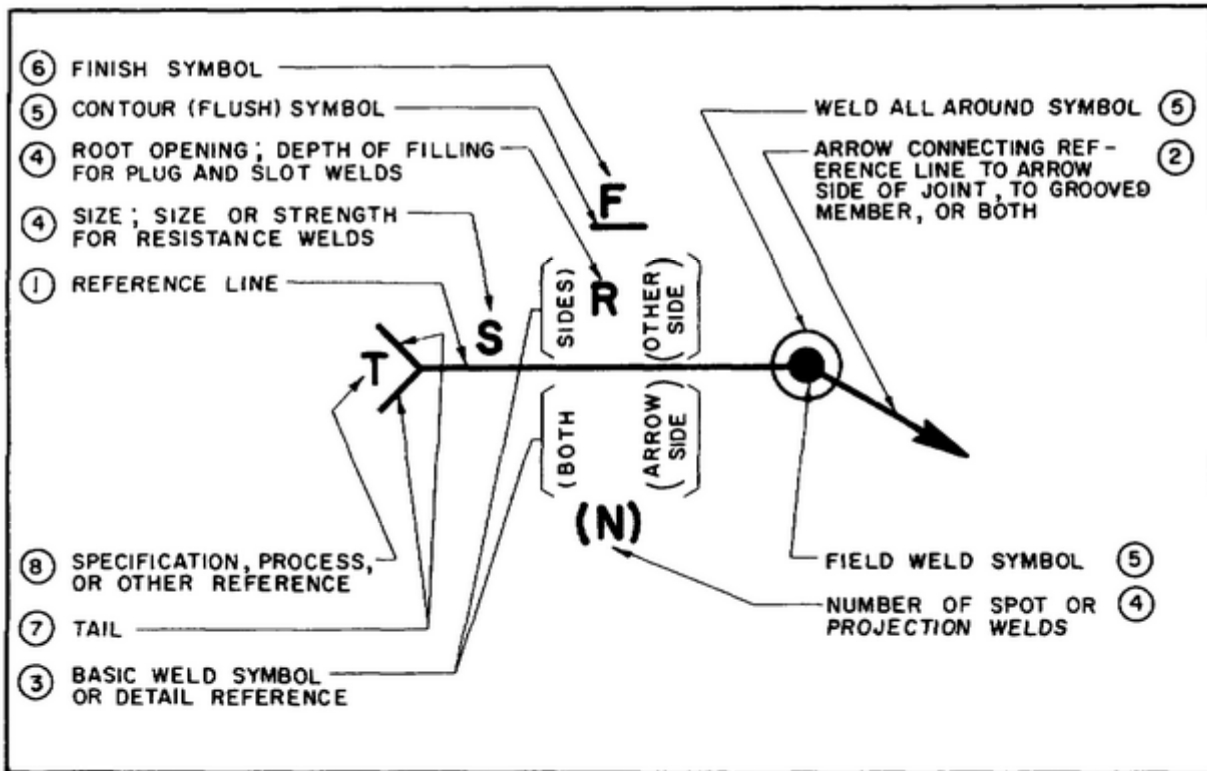


Figure 2-35. Standard location of elements of a welding symbol.

and contour of weld is to be flush, respectively.

(6) Finish. The finish symbols indicate the method of finishing (C = chipping, M = matching, G = grinding, R = rolling, H = hammering) and not the degree of finish.

(7) Tail. The tail is only used to set off the notation that designates a definite process or specification or other references considered as element (8) of the welding symbol. When no notation is required, the tail may be omitted from the welding symbol.

(8) Specification, process, or other references. This is a notation that indicates a definite process or certain specifications or other references. When the use of a definite process is required, the process may be indicated by one or more of the letter designations listed in tables 2-7 and 2-8.

d. Applications of Welding Symbols. Applications of the welding symbol are shown in figure 2-36. Note how the location of the weld

symbol designates arrow side, other side, or both sides to be welded.

2-20. STRUCTURAL DRAWINGS

Structural drawings usually consist of some or all of the elements described in the following paragraphs.

a. Shop Drawings. Shop drawings show the details of the fabrication of parts and methods of assembly of the structural members that are prepared in special fabricating shops. Figure 2-37 illustrates structural members (a beam and a column) fabricated from a combination of rolled steel shapes. Figure 2-38 illustrates structural members of a welded steel truss.

(1) Working lines and working points. Shop drawings are made about light working lines laid out first along the centerlines of rivet gage lines to form a skeleton of the assembled member. The intersections of these working lines are called working points

Table 2-7. Designation of Welding Processes by Letters

Type of Weld	Welding Process	Letter Designation
Brazing	Torch Brazing	TB
	Twin-Carbon-Arc Brazing	TCAB
	Furnace Brazing	FB
	Induction Brazing	IB
	Resistance Brazing	RB
	Dip Brazing	DB
	Block Brazing	BB
	Flow Brazing	FLB
Flow Welding	Flow Welding	FLOW
Resistance Welding	Flash Welding	FW
	Upset Welding	UW
	Percussion Welding	PEW
Induction Welding	Induction Welding	IW
Arc Welding	Bare Metal-Arc Welding	BMAW
	Stud Welding	SW
	Gas-Shielded Stub Welding	GSSW
	Submerged Arc Welding	SAW
	Gas Tungsten-Arc Welding	GTAW
	Gas Metal-Arc Welding	GMAW
	Atomic Hydrogen Welding	AHW
	Shielding Metal Arc Welding	SMAW
	Twin-Carbon-Arc Welding	TCAW
	Carbon-Arc Welding	CAW
	Gas Carbon-Arc Welding	GCAW
	Shielded Carbon-Arc Welding	SCAW
Thermit Welding	Nonpressure Thermit Welding	NTW
	Pressure Thermit Welding	PTW
Gas Welding	Pressure Gas Welding	PGW
	Oxygen-Hydrogen Welding	OHW
	Oxygen-Acetylene Welding	OAW
	Air-Acetylene Welding	AAW
Forge Welding	Roll Welding	RW
	Die Welding	DW
	Hammer Welding	HW

Note: Letter designations have not been assigned to arc-spot, resistance-spot, arc-seam and resistance-seam welding or to projection welding since the weld symbols used are adequate.

^a The following suffixes may be used to indicate the method of applying the above processes:

Automatic Welding	-- AU
Machine Welding	-- ME
Manual Welding	-- MA
Semi-Automatic Welding	-- SA

Table 2-8. Designation of Cutting Processes by Letters

Cutting Process	Letter Designation
Arc Cutting	AC
Air-Carbon-Arc Cutting	ACAC
Carbon-Arc Cutting	CAC
Metal-Arc Cutting	MAC
Oxygen Cutting	OC
Chemical Flux Cutting	FOC
Metal Powder Cutting	POC
Oxygen-Arc Cutting	AOC

*The following suffixes may be used to indicate the methods of applying the above processes:

Automatic Cutting	- AU
Machine Cutting	- ME
Manual Cutting	- MA
Semi-Automatic Cutting	- SA

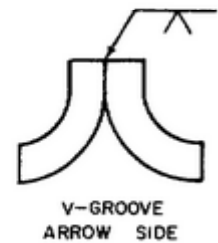
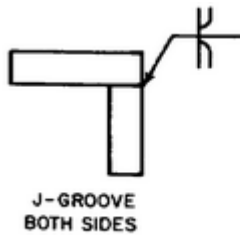
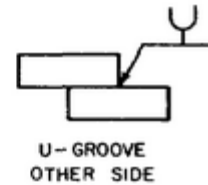
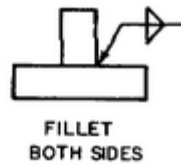
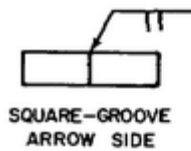
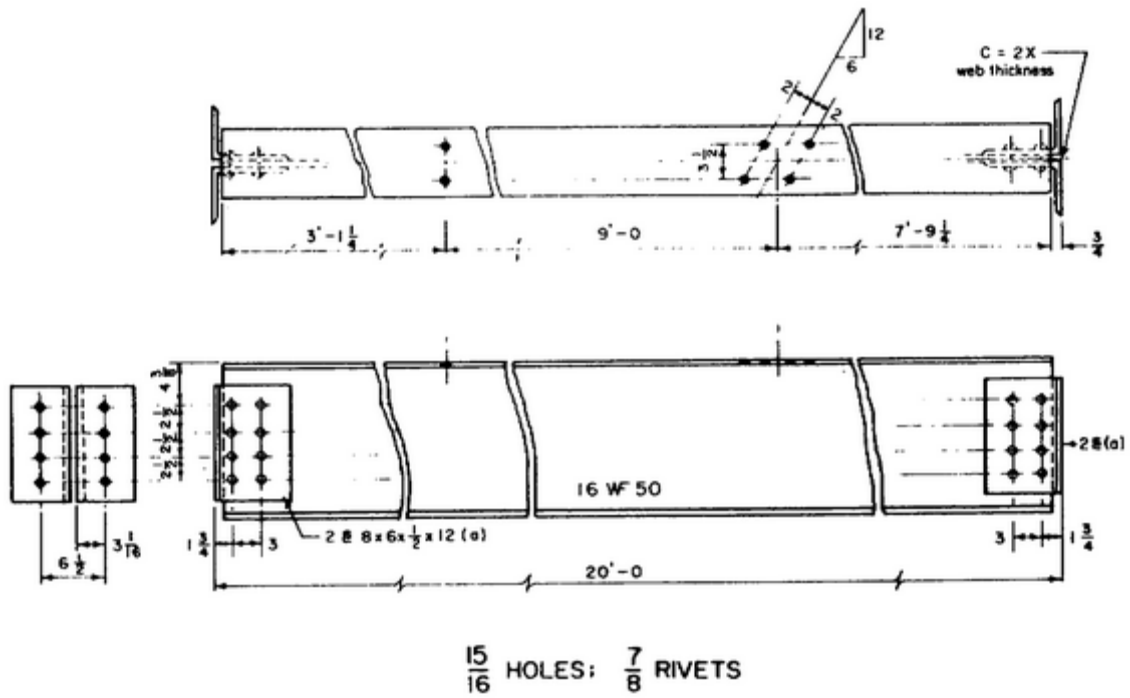
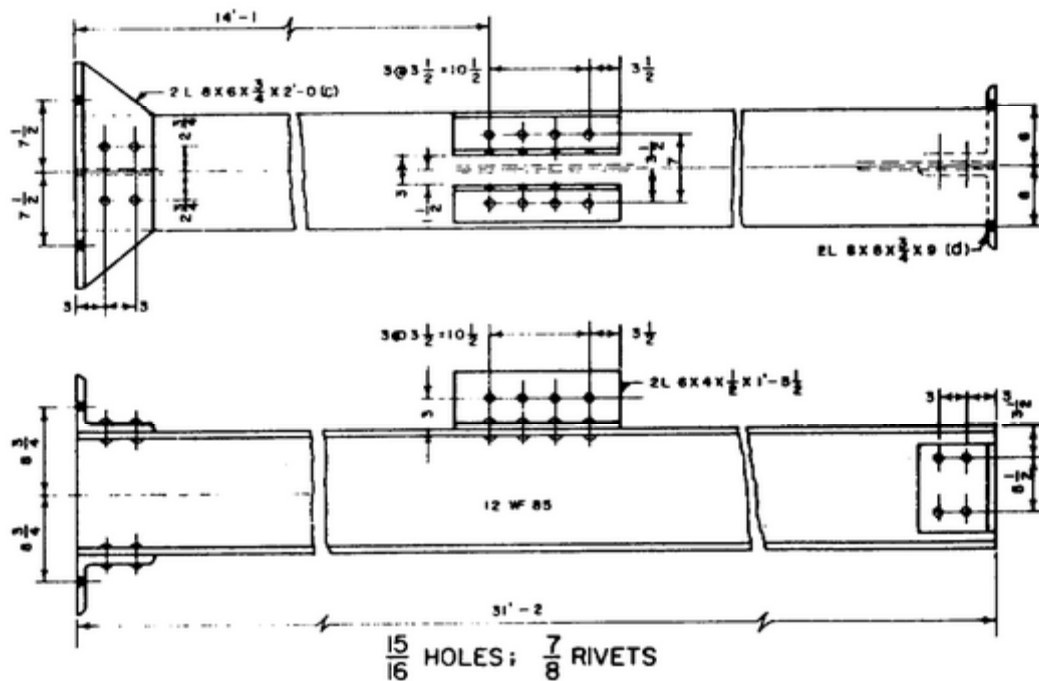


Figure 2-36. Application of the welding symbol.



TYPICAL BEAM DRAWING



TYPICAL COLUMN DRAWING

Figure 2-37. Shop drawing of a beam and a column.

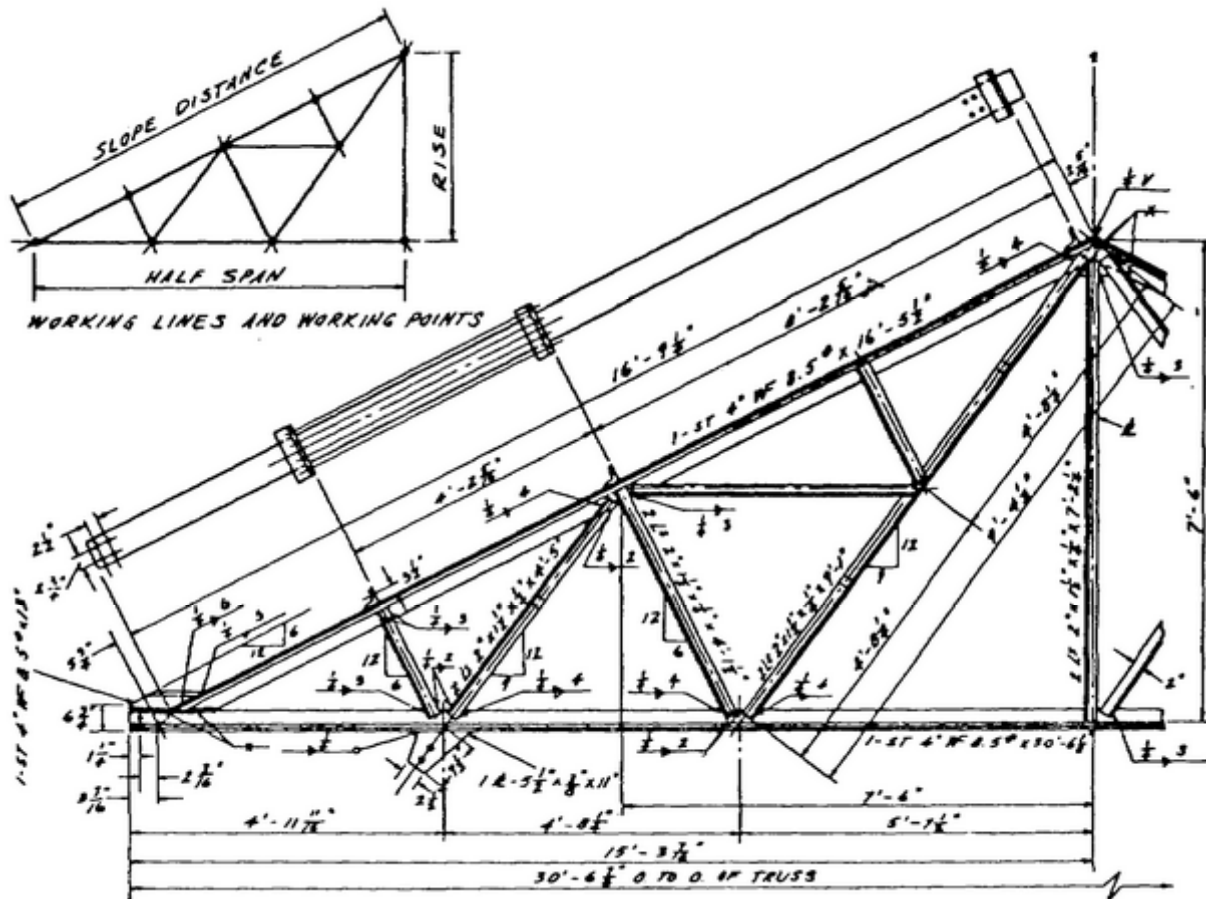


Figure 2-38. Typical welded steel truss.

from which all dimensions are given. This skeleton is usually the same as, or taken from, the designer's stress diagram. Generally, the skeleton diagram is drawn to a small scale on the shop drawing (fig 2-38).

(2) Relative position of parts. Parts to be welded or riveted together in the shop are shown in the same relative position (vertical, horizontal, or inclined, as in figure 2-38) they will occupy in their assembled position in the structure. These parts are not detailed individually, as is the practice for machine drawing. Note in figure 2-38 that due to the truss being symmetrical about each side of center, only half of the truss need be shown. In such cases, it is always the left end that is drawn.

(3) Long vertical or inclined members. Long vertical (columns) or inclined (braces)

members are sometimes shown in a horizontal position on the drawing. When shown in this manner, the bottom of a vertical member appears at the left (fig 2-37) and an inclined member is shown in the direction it would fall.

(4) Scales. Scales of shop drawings vary from 1/4 inch = 1 foot to 1 inch = 1 foot, depending upon the size of the drawing sheet as compared with the size of the structural member. Usually, two scales are used in the same view, one denoting length, and the other showing the cross-section at a larger scale than the length.

b. General Plan. The general plan indicates the location and gives the general features of the structure and the ground upon which it is situated. It includes the necessary data for constructing both the substructure and the superstructure.

c. Stress Diagram. The stress diagram shows the main dimensions, the loadings, stresses, and sizes of the structural members.

d. Foundation Plan. The foundation or masonry plan (fig 2-39) covers the details of the foundation, walls, piers, etc.

e. Erection Diagram. The erection diagram (fig 2-40) shows the relative location of every part of the structure and the assembly marks for the various members. The erection diagram may also include all main dimensions, the number of pieces in the members, the packing of pins, the size and grip of pins, and any special feature or information that may assist you in the field.

f. Falsework Plan. Falsework is a temporary support, usually timber, for a steel structure such as a truss bridge that cannot be self-supporting until completed. Falsework plans are used only in a complex construction.

g. Bill of Materials. The bill of materials shows the different parts of the structure, identifying marks, and shipping weight. This also serves as a checkoff list to insure that you have the proper materials on hand.

h. Connection List. The connection list provides the dimensions and the number of bolts, pins, and rivets required in the structure.

i. List of Drawings. Since a great number of drawings are required for any sizable structure, a complete list of drawings is usually supplied with each set of drawings for the structure. This list is in a logical sequence.

2-21. READING PRINTS OF STEEL STRUCTURES

A typical welded steel truss is illustrated in figure 2-38. To read this print, the ability to interpret

the structural shape notations and welding symbols is primarily all that is necessary.

a. Structural Member. The top chord is 1-ST 4 WF 8.5 x 16'-5 1/2". This means that there is one structural tee cut from a wide flange. The tee is 4 inches deep and weighs 8.5 pounds per foot. It is 16 feet 5 1/2 inches long. The bottom chord is the same type of member and is 30 feet 6 7/8 inches long and extends across the entire width of the truss. The cross members are made from two angles 2" x 1 1/2" x 1/4.

b. Welding Symbols. Upon checking the welding symbols, you will discover that most of the structural members will be fillet-welded with a fillet having a 1/4-inch radius (thickness) on both sides and running along the member for 4 inches. Looking at the upper-right of drawing (hip) we see the requirement for a bevel-groove weld of 1/4-inch radius on the other side of arrow.

2-22. PRINTS OF PREFABRICATED STRUCTURES

a. In reading structural prints, whether for a complex structure or a prefabricated Quonset assembly, the reading techniques are the same. Prints of prefabricated structures show how the various parts are assembled. The prefabricated parts are noted on the plans, elevations, and assembly drawings. Figure 2-41 illustrates an exterior elevation of a prefabricated aircraft maintenance and repair hangar. The CM notations shown in figure 2-41 mean corrugated metal panels.

b. Illustrated in figure 2-42 is an assembly drawing of a prefabricated, nailable steel frame building (theater of operations modular). Note that each part of the assembly is marked for identification and location. For example, C5-4 designates a wall corrugated sheet and J-20 a stringer. Figure 2-43 is a detailed drawing showing how the framework is assembled.

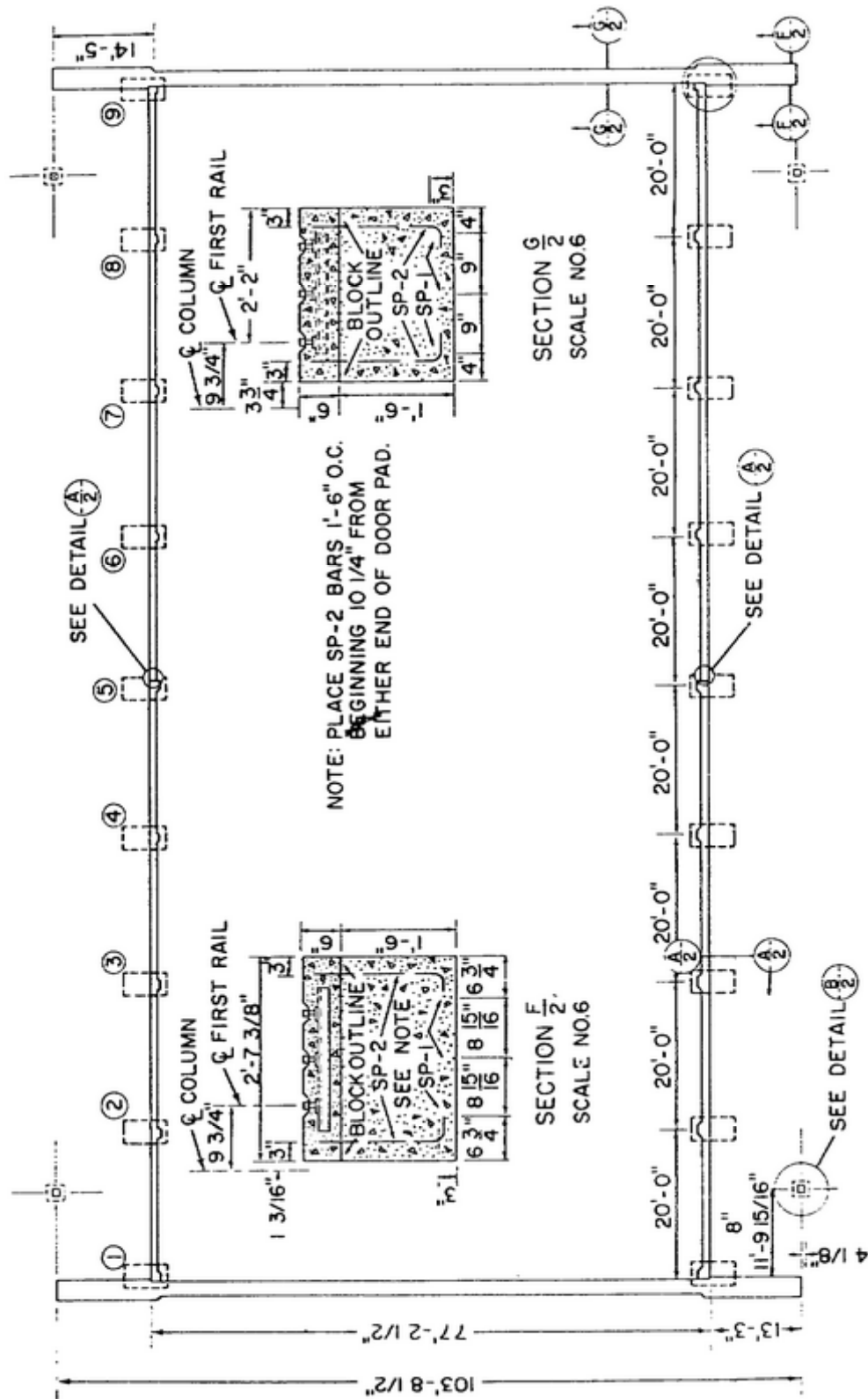


Figure 2-39. Typical foundation plan, concrete.

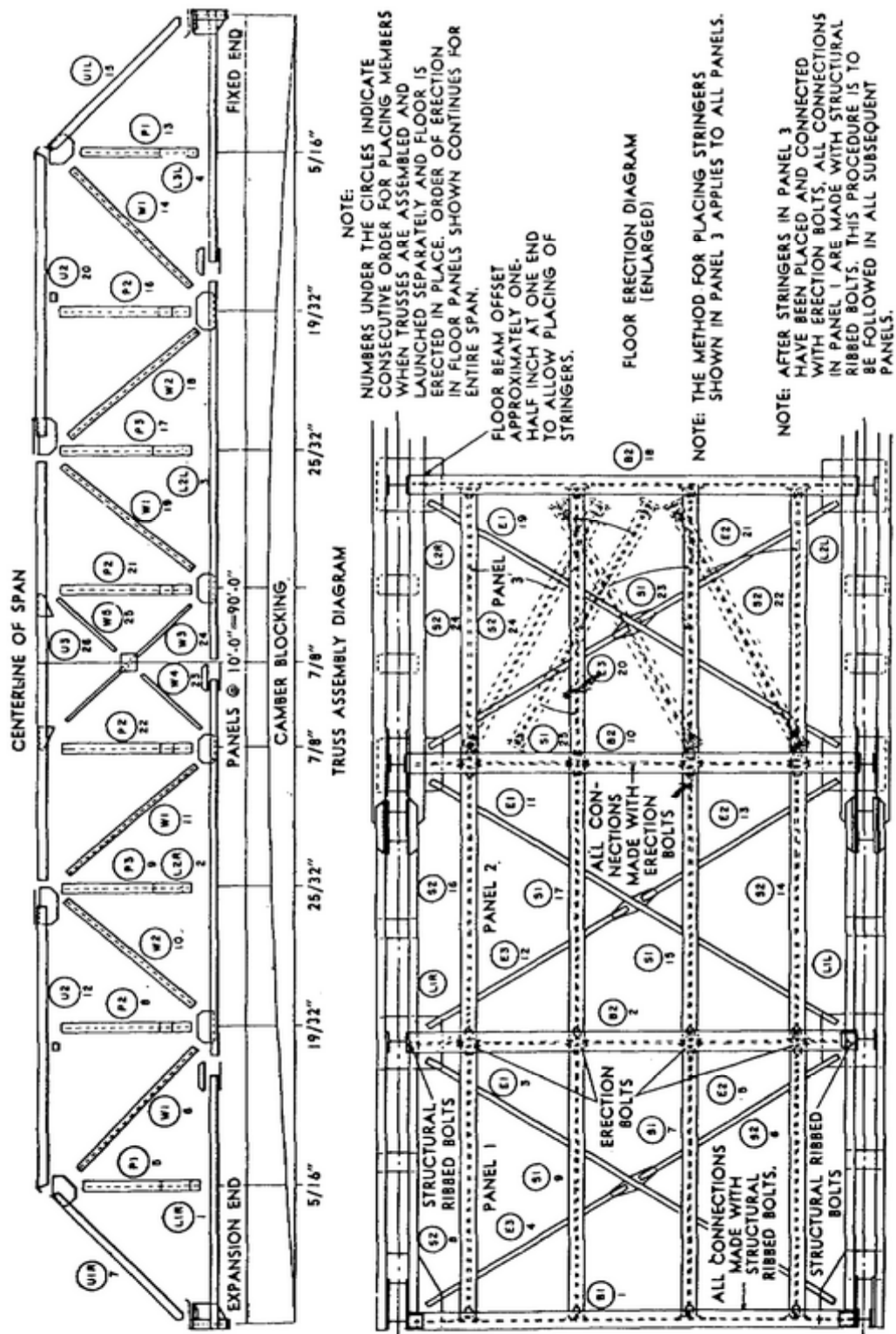


Figure 2-40. Typical erection diagram.

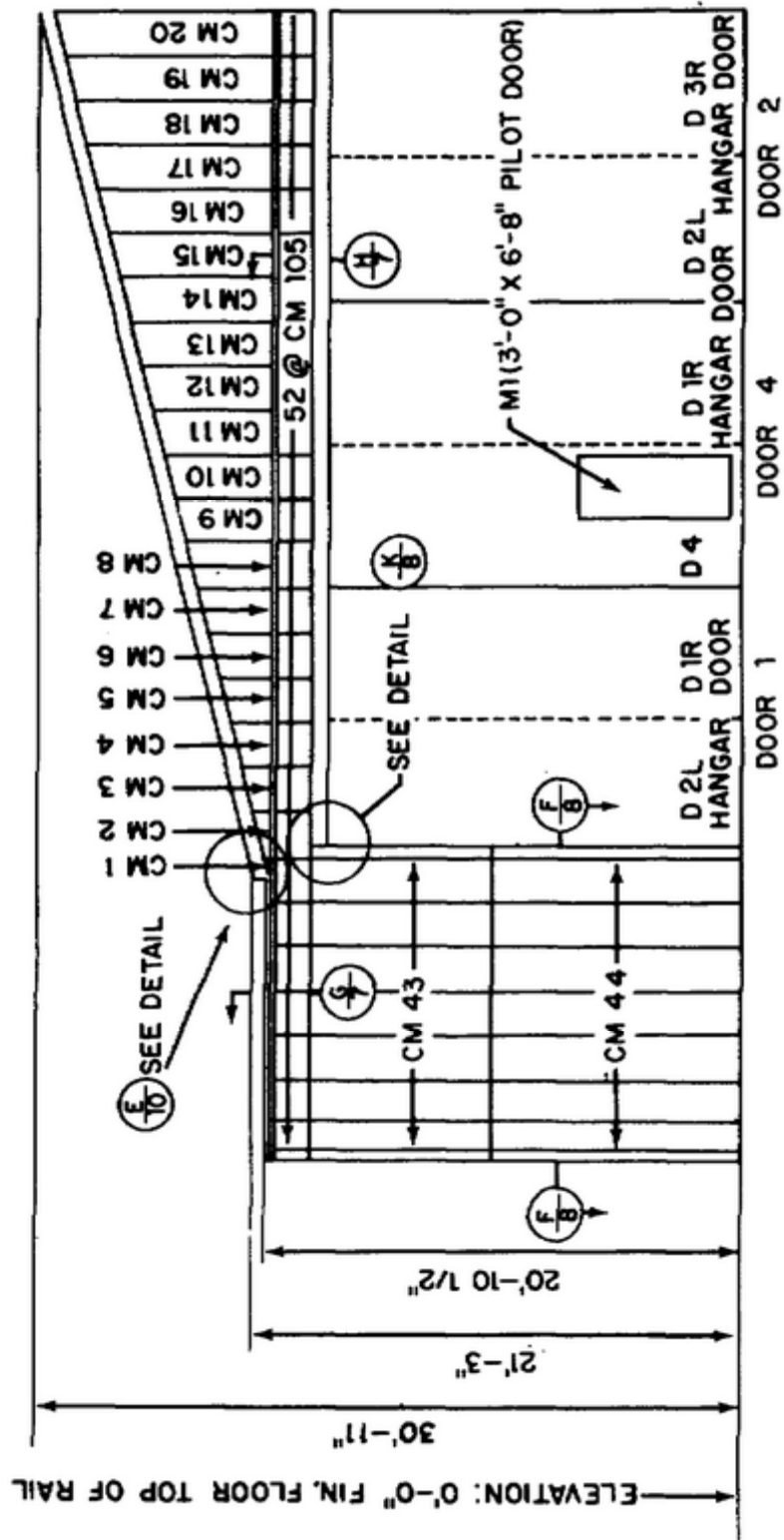


Figure 2-41. Elevation of prefabricated building.

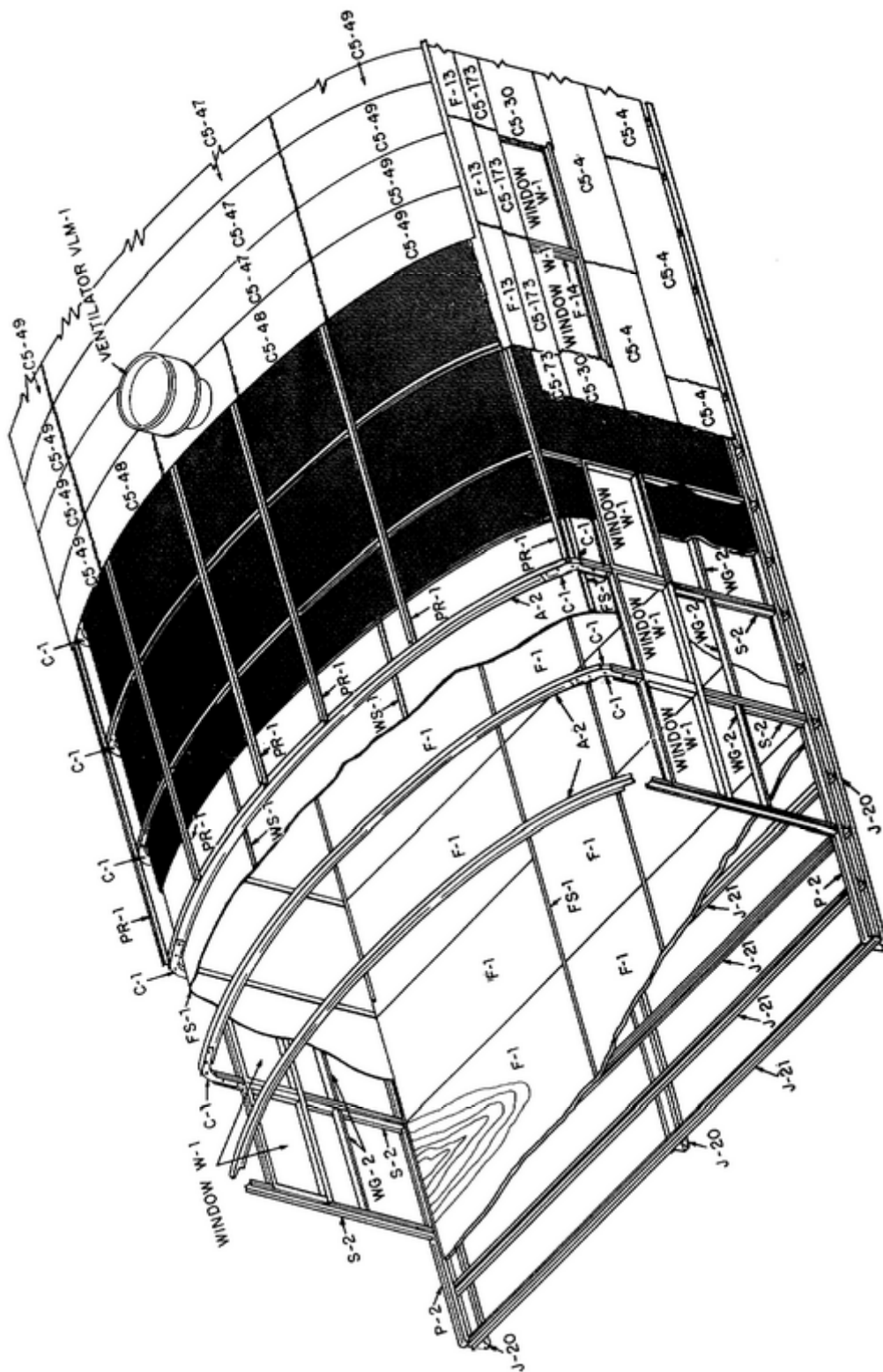


Figure 2-42. Quonset assembly.

MARK	DESCRIPTION
P-2	CHANNEL, 3-13/16"
C-1	CHANNEL SPLICE, 3-1/4" X 7/8"
C5-47	CORR. SHEET, ROOF, 27-1/2"
C5-48	CORR. SHEET, ROOF, 27-1/2"
C5-49	CORR. SHEET, ROOF, 27-1/2"
C5-4	CORR. SHEET, WALL, 26"
C5-30	CORR. SHEET, WALL, 26"
F-14	FLASHING, MULLION
F-1	FLOOR PANEL, 4'-0" X 1/2" X 8'-0"
WG-2	GIRTS, 3/4" X 3-1/2"
J-21	JOISTS, 3-5/8"
PR-1	PURLINS, 2"
FS-1	SPLINE, WALL
WS-1	SPLINE, WALL
J-20	STRINGER, 5"
S-2	STUDS, 3-5/8"
VLM-1	VENTILATOR ASSEMBLY
W-1	WINDOW ASSEMBLY
C5-73	CORR. SHEET, WALL, 13"
C5-173	CORR. SHEET, WALL, 13"
F-13	FLASHING, EAVE

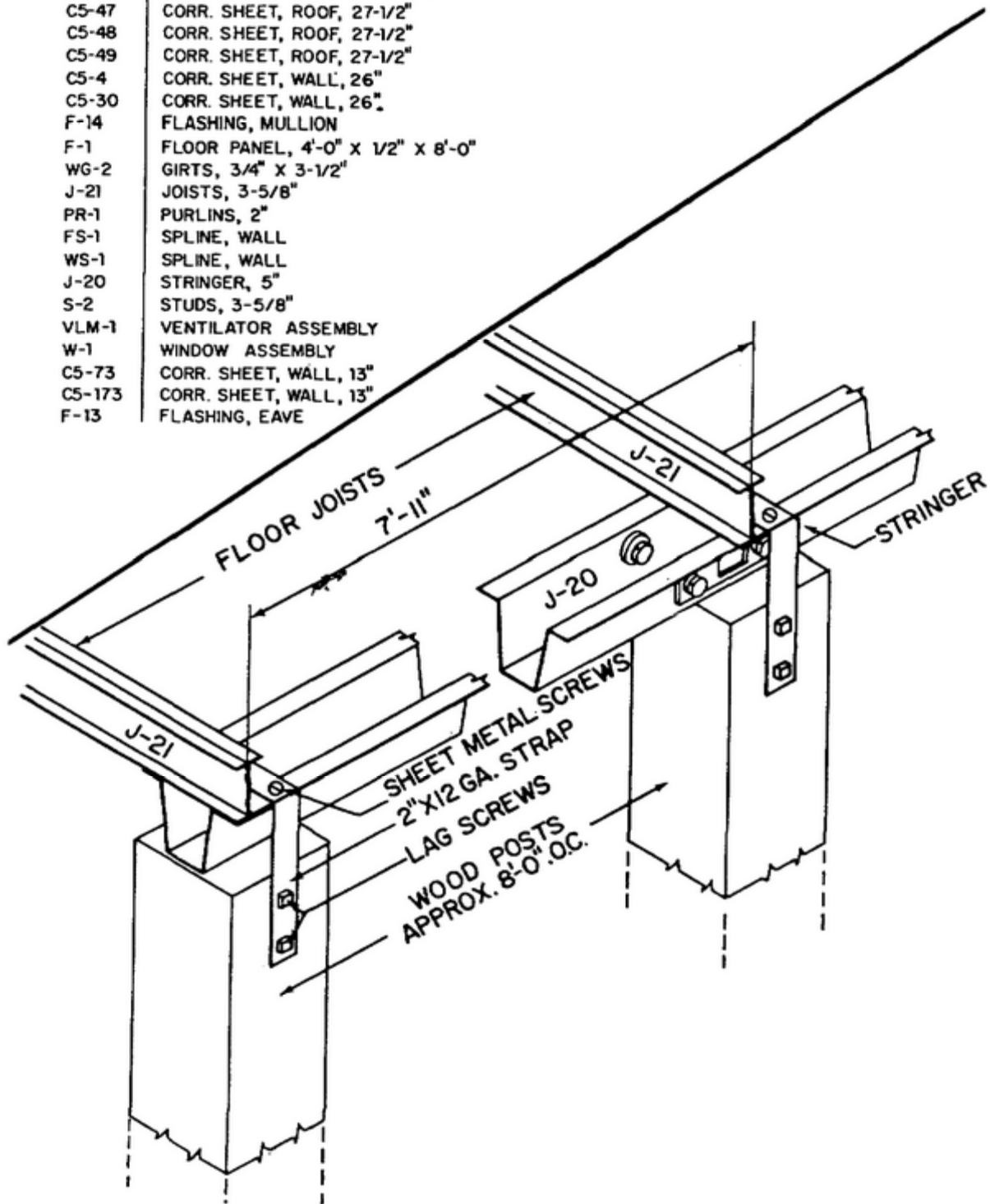


Figure 2-43. Quonset assembly detail.

REVIEW QUESTION 7

Assume that you need a bolt which has size No. 10 nominal major diameter and you decide to use the American Standard National Coarse thread series. How many threads per inch will the bolt have? (para 2-19, **a**) (table 2-6)

REVIEW QUESTION 8

When a long vertical member, such as a column, is shown in a horizontal position on a drawing, how does the base of the vertical member appear? (para 20, **a** (3))

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 7

The number of threads per inch for American National Coarse (NC) and National Fine (NF) is shown in table 2-6. Finding the major diameter size of 10 under the first column and then moving across under the NC column, it can be seen that the bolt will have 24 threads per inch. (para 2-19, **a**) (table 2-6)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 8

The base of a vertical member when drawn in a horizontal position will be shown on the left side. (para 2-20, **a** (3))

LESSON 2 SELF TEST EXERCISES

Upon completion of the text assignment, solve the following self test exercises based on lesson objectives.

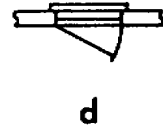
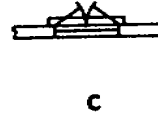
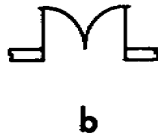
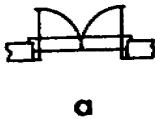
NOTE: The following exercises are study aids. References to related information in the reading material are shown in parentheses after each question. Write your answer in the space provided below each question. When you have finished answering all the questions for this lesson, compare your answers with those given for this lesson in the back of the booklet. Review the lesson as necessary.

Objective 1. WORKING DRAWINGS. List the components of a set of construction working drawings. (Answer questions 1 and 2.)

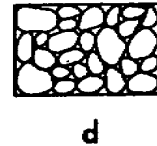
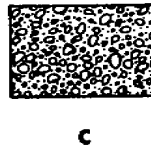
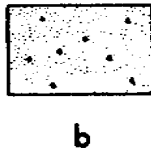
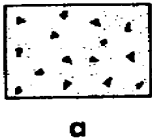
1. What are the components of a set of construction working drawings? (para 2-1, a)
2. A set of working drawings includes both general and detail drawings. What is a detail drawing? (para 2-1, a)

Objective 2. SYMBOLS AND CONVENTIONS. Identify common architectural symbols and conventions used on construction prints. (Answer questions 3 through 5.)

3. Architectural symbols are used on construction plans to show the type and location of such features as doors and windows. The symbols have the general shape of the feature being represented and show any motion occurring in the plan view. Which of the four symbols shown below represents a double window opening out? (para 2-2, a) (fig A-1, app A)



4. Similar to architectural symbols, material conventions are used to indicate the type of material used in the structure. Where possible, the symbol represents a common characteristic of the material. Which of the conventions shown below represents cut stone? (para 2-2, b) (fig 2-2).



5. Before initiating construction work, you would first consult a site plan (plot plan) to gather information about property lines, locations of existing and proposed structures, approaches, and finished grades. Referring to the site plan in figure 2-3, what do you calculate to be the distance, in feet, between the recreation building and the easternmost athletic court? (para 2-2, **a, b**) (fig 2-3)

Objective 3. TYPES OF DRAWINGS. Describe and explain the purpose of site plans, elevations, floor plans, and foundation plans. (Answer questions 6 through 9.)

6. A site plan may also include contour lines showing the elevation of the earth surfaces. Referring to figure 2-3, which of the following structures rests on the highest round surface? (para 2-3, **a, b**) (figure 2-3)
- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. Army exchange | c. athletic court |
| b. water tank | d. library |
7. If you were studying an elevation, what would the centerline symbol of alternate long and short dashes indicate? (para 2-4, **b**)
8. A floor plan is a cross-sectional view of a structure in which a horizontal cut is made across all openings, regardless of height from the floor. If a plan symbol of 18 DN, followed by an arrow, was shown next to a stairway on a plan view, what would the number 18 indicate? (para 2-5, **b**)
9. The area and locations of foundation walls or footings will be shown in a foundation plan which is a top view of the foundation. Which of the following information can be obtained from a foundation plan? (para 2-9)
- | | |
|------------------------------|--|
| a. height of footings | c. method of bracing used for foundation |
| b. size of lag screws | d. location of openings in foundation walls |

Objective 4. FRAMING DRAWINGS. Explain the framing methods used in wood construction and how they are shown on framing drawings for floors, roofs, walls, sections, and details. (Answer questions 10 through 13.)

10. What is the correct representation of lumber which has been surfaced on three sides and one edge? (para 2-6, **c (1)(b)**)
11. In general, western framing is preferred for one-story construction while balloon braced frames are used in multistory light construction. Which framing would you recommend as being the most economical? (para 2-7, **b**)

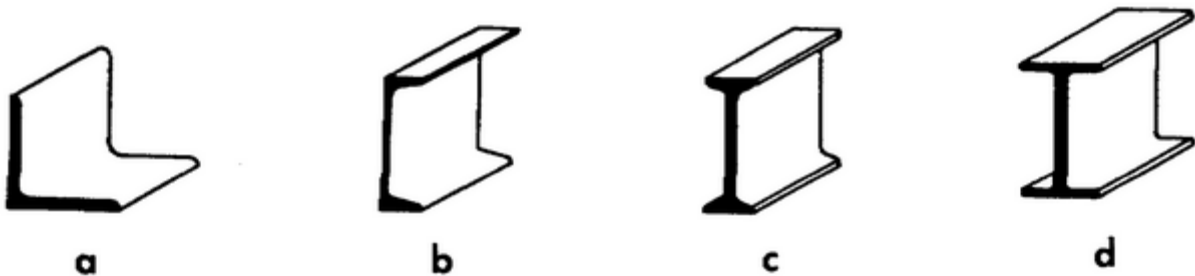
12. What portion of a wall will a wall section include? (para 2-11, **b**)
13. Details show features not appearing on plans, elevations, or sections. How are details noted on a drawing? (para 2-12, **a**)

Objective 5. CONCRETE AND MASONRY. Describe concrete and masonry methods and how they are depicted on construction drawings. (Answer questions 14 through 17.)

14. Section views are also used to show reinforcing bar placement. How are reinforcement bars parallel to the section view represented? (para 2-14, **b** (2))
15. Reinforcing schedules are used to explain in detail the features and characteristics of the various reinforcing bars. If you were interested in the characteristics of a bar referenced by a band mark, which schedule would you use? (para 2-14, **c**)(fig 2-20)
16. Divisions between concrete work performed at periods far enough apart to allow partial hardening are called construction joints. How is the location of a construction joint indicated on a drawing? (para 2-15, **b**)
17. One of the principal types of masonry walls is the bearing wall which supports a vertical load in addition to its own weight. What is the minimum thickness, in inches, of a brick bearing wall for a large structure such as a warehouse? (para 2-17, **a** (1))

Objective 6. STRUCTURAL DRAWINGS. Explain types of steel structural members used in military construction, methods of fabrication and assembly, and the types of structural drawings used for steel construction. (Answer questions 18 through 20.)

18. Steel structures are composed of rolled-steel shapes used either singly or combined to form members. Symbols are used in notes on bills of material to identify the various shapes. Of the four shapes shown below, which is represented by the symbol \sqsubset . (para 2-18, **a** (5))(fig 2-9)



19. When bolts and nuts are used as connectors, thread specifications will be given in a note. If a thread specification note indicated 1/2-13NC-2, which of the following would be a correct statement? (para 2-19, **a**)
- a. nominal size of major diameter is 2 inches
 - b. thread series is National Fine
 - c. bolt has 26 threads per inch
 - d. bolt has a right-hand thread
20. Shop drawings show the details of the fabrication of parts and methods of assembly for the structural members prepared in special fabricating shops. Shop drawings are made about light working lines laid out first along the centerlines, or rivet gage lines, to form a skeleton of the assembled members. All dimensions are given using the intersection of these lines as reference points. How are the points of intersection referred to? (para 2-20, **a** (1))

LESSON 3 UTILITIES DRAWINGS

TEXT ASSIGNMENTAttached Memorandum.

LESSON OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this lesson on Utilities Drawings, you should be able to accomplish the following in the indicated topic areas:

1. **Water Supply and Distribution.** Discuss the elements of a typical water supply waste and distribution system used in military field installations.
2. **Plumbing Symbols.** Identify the symbols used on plumbing plans for piping, fittings, valves, and fixtures for water distribution and waste disposal.
3. **Sewerage System Plans.** Describe and interpret simple plumbing and sewerage system plans.
4. **Electrical Distribution System.** Explain power transmission and distribution systems as used in military installations.
5. **Interior Wiring.** Identify the components of an interior wiring system and the symbols used for them on wiring diagrams.
6. **Electrical Plans.** Describe and interpret simple electrical plans.

ATTACHED MEMORANDUM

Section I. Water Supply and Distribution

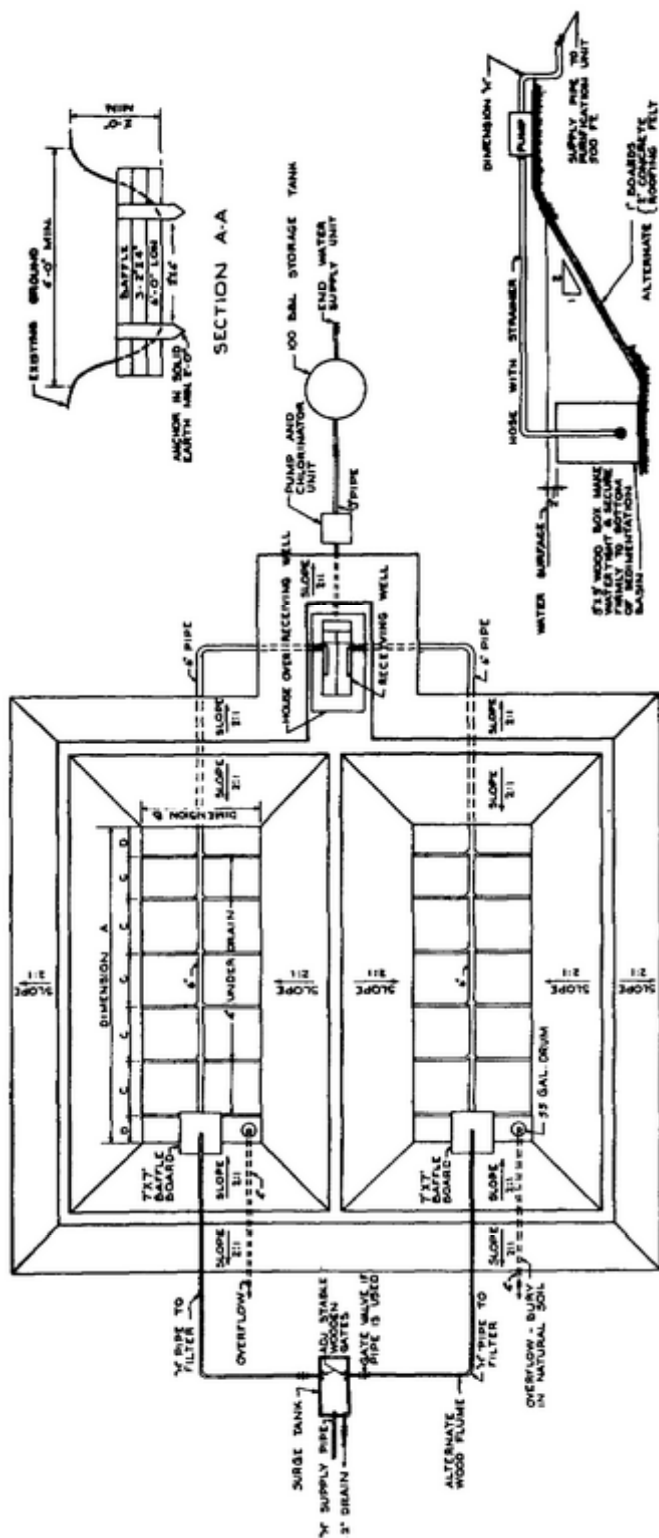
3-1. DEFINITION

A water supply system consists of facilities, equipment, and piping that are used to obtain, treat, and transport water for the distribution system. A distribution system is a combination of connected pipes laid out in the form of a "tree" or "gridiron" to carry the supplied water to the usage point in the system.

3-2. WATER SUPPLY SYSTEM

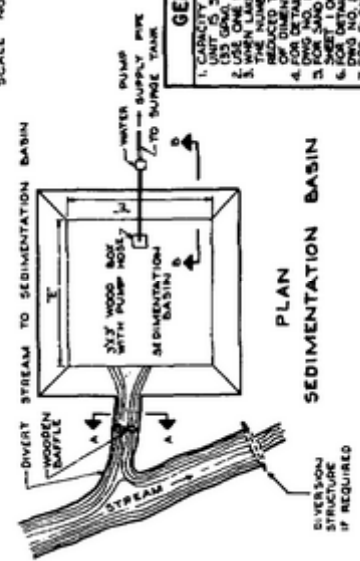
Elements found on a typical construction print for a water supply system are shown in figure 3-1.

From the general plan (lower left corner of figure 3-1) you can see how the water is diverted from the stream. You should notice that it may be necessary to construct a diversion structure in the stream to raise the water surface level. This water supply may also be obtained from a surface water collecting reservoir or from wells either deep or shallow. Two section views are indicated on this general plan view. Section A-A shows the details of the baffle and the shape of the diversion ditch. Section B-B shows that the water is pumped through a hose with a strainer from a box secured in the sedimentation basin to a purification unit.



SECTION A-A
SECTION B-B
SOURCE DIAGRAM & DETAILS
NO SCALE

PLAN
SAND FILTRATION PLANT
50,000 GALLON PER DAY
SCALE NO. 10



GENERAL NOTES	
1. CAPACITY OF EACH SAND FILTRATION UNIT IS 50,000 GALLONS PER DAY (100,000 GPD).	
2. USE ONE UNIT AND CLEAN ONE UNIT.	
3. WHEN CLEANING, THE NUMBER OF UNITS TO BE CLEANED AT ONE TIME SHALL BE REDUCED TO COMPLY WITH THE TABLE.	
4. OF DIMENSIONS OF PRECIPITATING WELLS SEE DWG NO. 84-12, SHEET 1 OF 1.	
5. FOR SAND CHAIN SEE DWG NO. 84-13, SHEET 1 OF 1.	
6. SET OF 1 OF FILTER BED SEE DWG NO. 84-15, SHEET 1 OF 1.	
7. FOR FLOTT GAGE CHART SEE DWG NO. 84-15, SHEET 1 OF 1.	

SHEET NO.	DESCRIPTION
84-11	WATER SUPPLY-50,000 GPD 1 OF 1
84-12	WATER SUPPLY-50,000 GPD 1 OF 1
84-13	WATER SUPPLY-50,000 GPD 1 OF 1
84-14	WATER DISTRIBUTION-DETAILS 1 OF 1
84-15	CHLORINATION & STRAINERS 1 OF 1

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY ENGINEER REGIMENT NO. 10	
TITLE: UTILITY FACILITIES WATER SUPPLY-SAND FILTRATION TYPE 50,000 GPD	
DATE: 12 JUN 58	BY: [Signature]
NO. 84-11	AS NOTED

Figure 3-1. Water supply system.

The primary drawing is a detailed plan of the sand filter. The water is pumped from the sedimentation basin to a surge tank and then to the sand filter. By studying the drawing you can determine that the sides of the sand filter are on a 2: 1 slope and that they are drained by a series of 4-inch pipes. After the water is filtered, it is pumped to a storage tank and then to the distribution system. In other cases the water may be pumped to a water treatment plant before it goes to the distribution system. You can learn from the general notes that the capacity of each sand filter is 50,000 gallons per day so that one unit can supply the rated capacity while the other is being cleaned. Other views that might be shown on a construction print are an elevation view of the sand filtration unit and additional details.

3-3. DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM

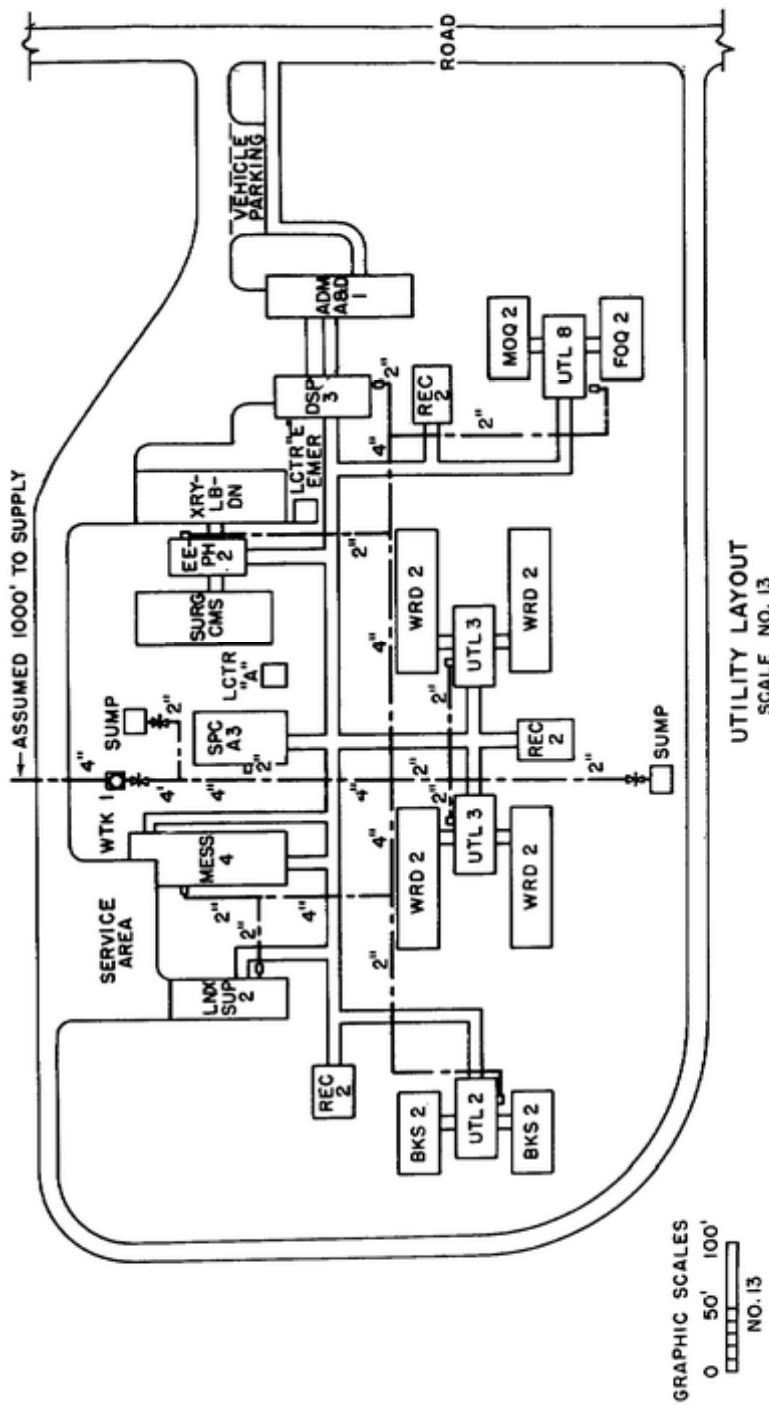
Once the water in the water treatment plant meets certain quality specifications, it is introduced into the distribution system. Figure 3-2 shows a typical water distribution system for a hospital area. The general location and size of the pipes are shown along with the valves, sumps, water tank, and other fixtures. In general, the symbols used on distribution system plans correspond to those for water plumbing. Additional symbols which may not be in common use are explained by notes or a legend on each construction print on which they appear. The exact location of pipelines and equipment, as shown by the symbols on the prints, is determined by the pipefitter in the field. Details, such as the depth of waterline installations, construction of supporting saddles or mats, supports and bracing to prevent damage by water-hammer and movements, are determined in the field based on climate, terrain, and good plumbing and construction practice.

3-4. UNIT CONSTRUCTION AND PACKAGE UNIT PRINTS

Additional prints must be consulted for construction or installation of unit structures and equipment used in water supply and distribution systems. The type of additional prints provided depends on whether the unit is constructed in the field or is a "package unit" which is assembled in the field.

a. Unit Construction Drawings. The information provided in lesson 2 for architectural drawings applies to the drawings used for structures in water supply and distribution systems. Figure 3-3 is a typical drawing of an elevated water storage tower. From figure 3-3 you can determine the size of the tower, the size of the steel beams, the size of the dunnage beams, and the dimensions of the footings required to support three types of tanks. In addition, you can quickly determine all piping requirements including the detailed plumbing connections for the float valve.

b. Package Units. Package units are assembled in the field and installed in accordance with the manufacturers' instructions supplied with the unit or units. In addition to the construction drawings and specifications supplied, a drawing similar to figure 3-4 usually is supplied. You can see that several package units have to be installed and connected together to form a water treatment plant. The standard plumbing drawing would be required before you could attempt to assemble and install the package units. However, drawings similar to figure 3-4 are required to enable field personnel to visualize the completed installation. The arrows indicate the main flow path of the water and help to explain how the plant operates. The other lines are chemical feeders, drains, and filtered water return lines.



UTILITY LAYOUT
SCALE NO. 13

SCHEDULE OF FACILITIES							
ABBR	ITEM	QTY	SIZE OR UNIT	ABBR	ITEM	QTY	SIZE OR UNIT
	BUILDINGS						
ADM-ABO 1	ADMINISTRATION, ADMISSION & DISPOSITION-1	1	30'X 110'	UTL 3	UTILITY BUILDING-3	2	30'X 60'
BKS 2	BARRACKS-2	2	30'X 60'	UTL 8	UTILITY BUILDING-8	1	30'X 60'
DSP 3	DISPENSARY-3	1	30'X 70'		WALKS-COVERED	1	8'X 1435'
EE-PH 2	EE & PHARMACY-2	1	30'X 70'	WRD 2	WARD BUILDING--2-ACUTE	4	30'X 100'
LNX-SUP 2	LINEN EXCHANGE & SUPPLY-2	1	30'X 60'	XRY-LB-DN	X-RAY-LAB-DENTAL	1	40'X 110'
MESS 4	MESS BUILDING-4	1	30'X 90'		OTHER CONSTRUCTION		
FOO 2	OFFICERS' QUARTERS-FEMALE-2	1	4400 SF		ROAD-DOUBLE LANE-6"MACADAM, 1" ASPHALT	0.34	MILE
MOQ 2	OFFICERS' QUARTERS-MALE-2	1	30'X 60'	SUMP	SUMP-FIRE PROTECTION	2	10,000 GAL
REC 2	RECREATION BUILDING-2	1	30'X 60'		HARDSTANDS-4" MACADAM	7.1	1000SY
SPC A 3	SPECIAL SERVICES BUILDING-SPC-A3	3	30'X 40'		SITE AREA	10.1	ACRES
SURG-CMS	SURGERY-CENTRALIZED MATERIEL	1	40'X 70'	WTK 1	WATER TANK	1	4,000 GAL
UTL 2	UTILITY BUILDING-2	1	40'X 100'	LCTR	LOAD CENTER	1	---
		1	30'X 60'	LCTR-EMER	LOAD CENTER-EMERGENCY	1	---

Figure 3-2. Water distribution plan.

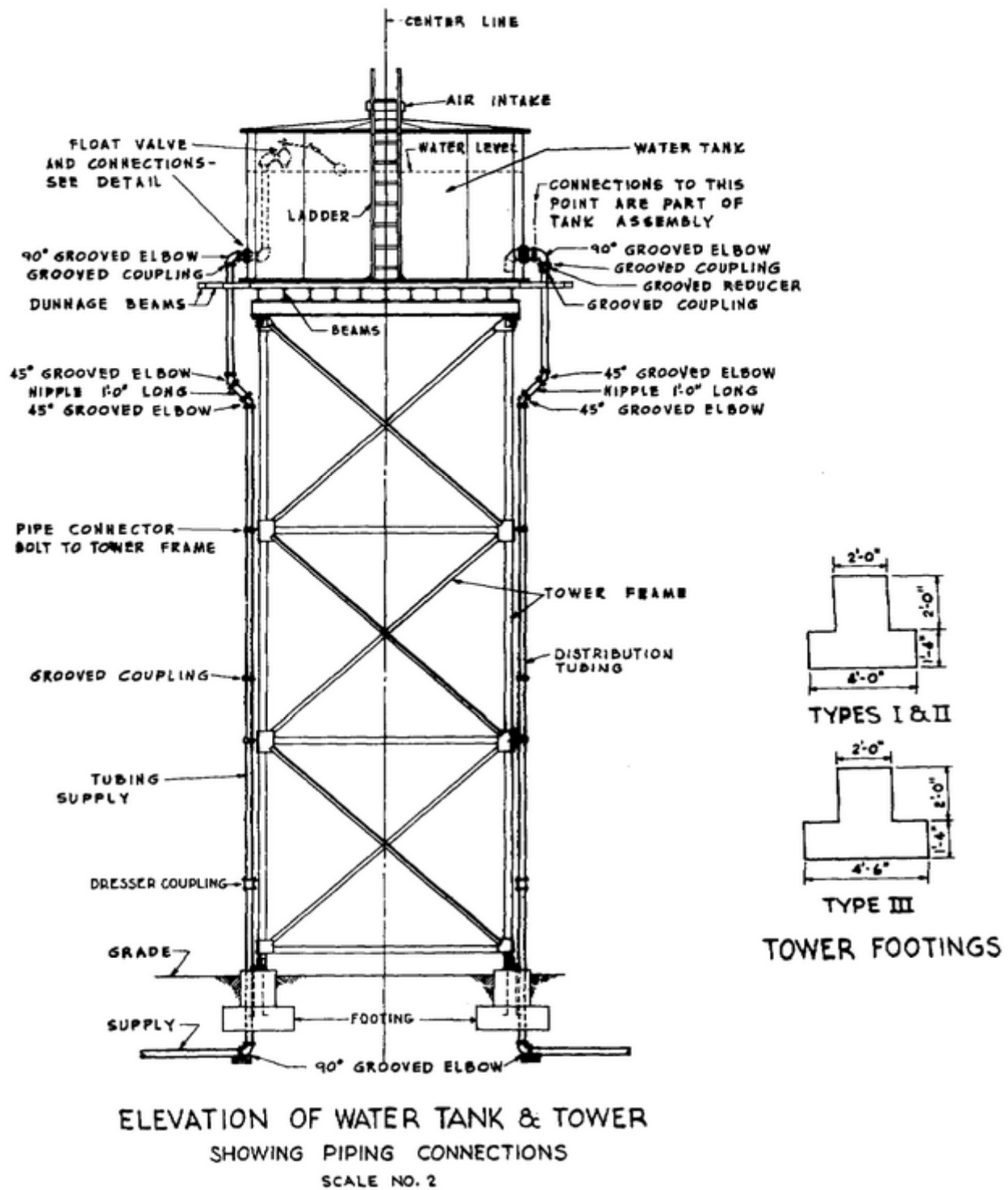
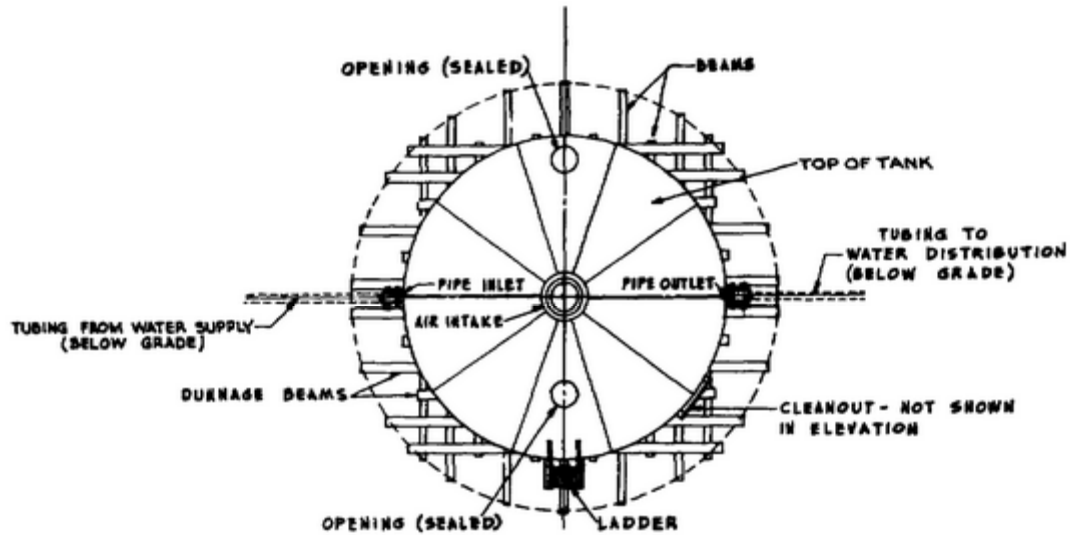
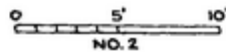


Figure 3-3. Typical water tank and tower detail plumbing diagram.

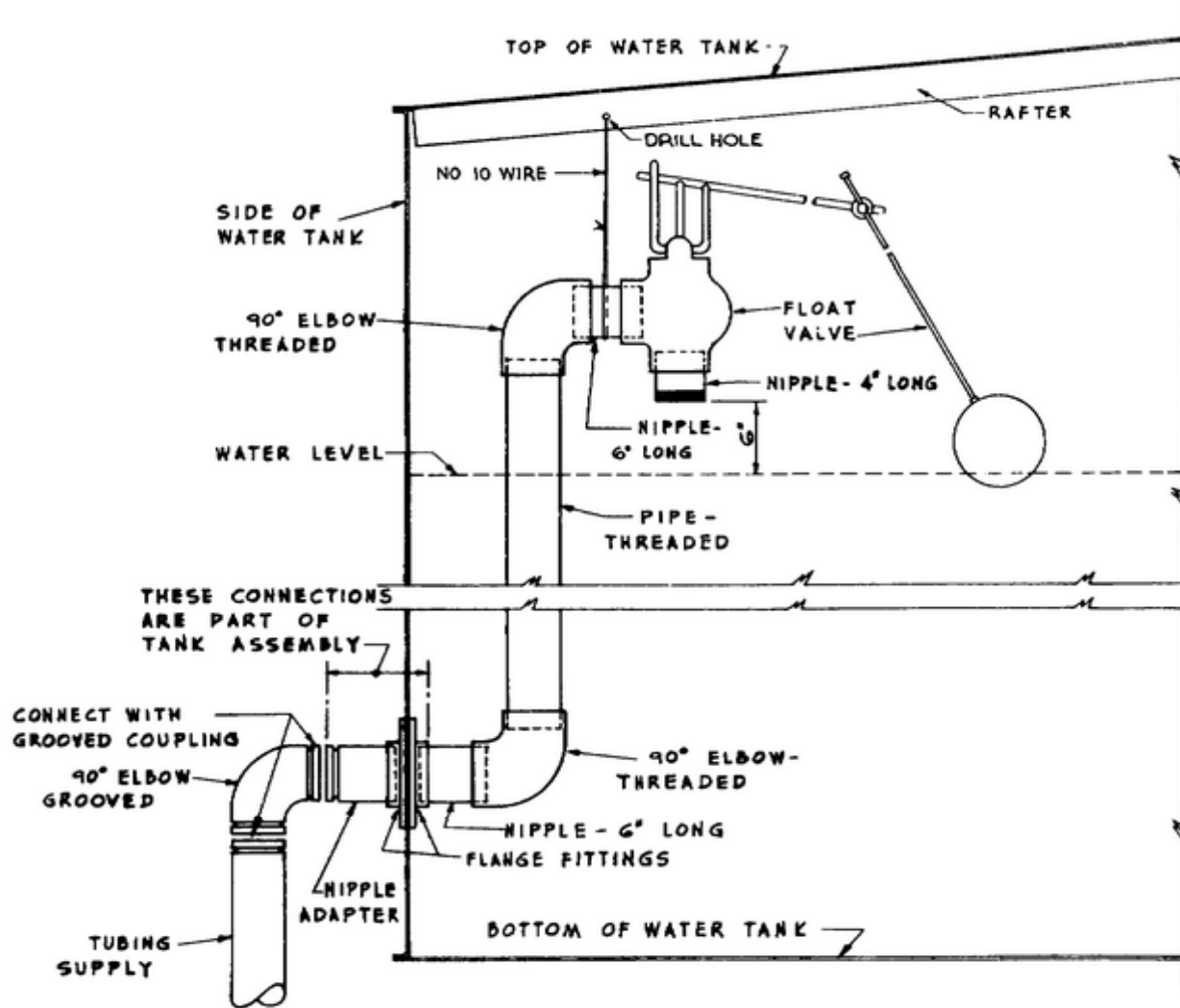


ROOF PLAN OF WATER TANK & TOWER
SHOWING PIPING CONNECTIONS
SCALE NO 2



WATER TANK & TOWER SCHEDULE											
TYPE	CAPACITY				SIZE			TOWER			
	BBL.	GAL.	INLET	OUTLET	DIA.	HEIGHT	STOCK NUMBER	DUNNAGE BEAM	STEEL BEAM	HEIGHT	STOCK NUMBER
I	100	4,000	6"	4"	9'-2 3/4"	8'-0"	58-8718.041.010	4"X6@1'-4" O.C.	6 B 12 @ 1'-4" O.C.	36'	58-8986.836.004
II	250	10,500	6"	4"	15'-6"	8'-0"	58-8718.041.025	4"X6@1'-4" O.C.	8 B 13 @ 1'-5" O.C.	36'	58-8986.836.010
III	500	21,000	6"	4"	21'-7"	8'-0"	58-8718.041.050	4"X6@1'-4" O.C.	10 W. 21 @ 1'-8" O.C.	36'	58-8986.836.021
NOTE: 1- ERECTION DRAWINGS WILL BE PROVIDED WITH EACH TANK AND TOWER. 2- DETAILS ARE SHOWN FOR 4" GROOVED TYPE FITTINGS, USE 2" STANDARD THREADED FITTINGS WHEN REQUIRED.											

Figure 3-3. Continued



DETAIL OF FLOAT VALVE CONNECTION

SCALE NO 7

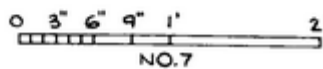


Figure 3-3. Continued.

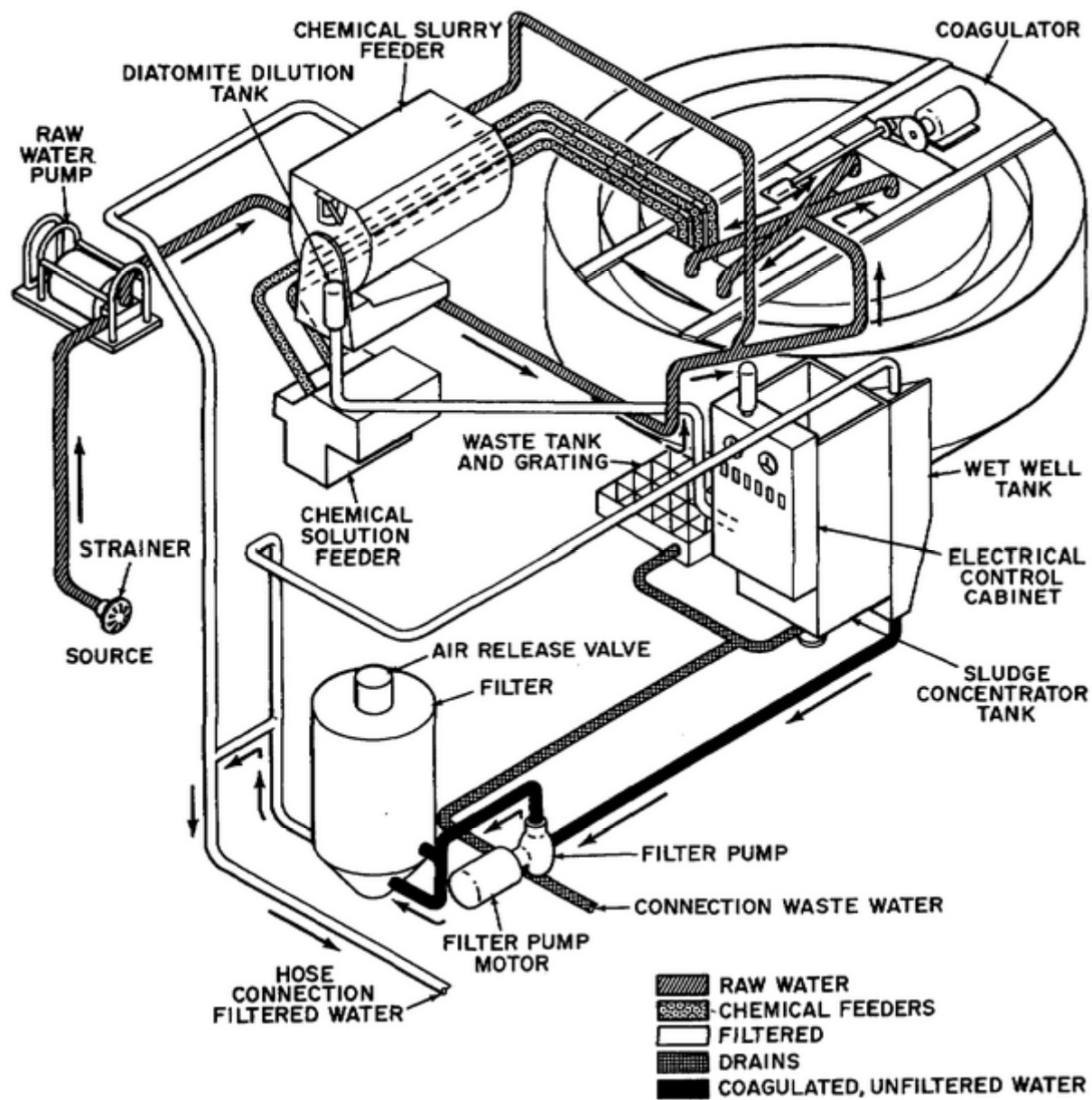


Figure 3-4. Flow diagram for a water treatment plan.

REVIEW QUESTION 1

Figure 3-1 is a construction print describing a water supply system. The drawing shows that the water is pumped from the supply source (stream) into a surge tank and then to the sand filtration system. After filtration, the water is pumped from a 3-foot x 3-foot box to a purification unit. Assuming that the horizontal length of the slanted side of the sand filter is 8 feet, what distance, in feet, is the edge of the sand filter above the floor of the sedimentation basin? (para 3-2) (fig 3-1)

REVIEW QUESTION 2

Figure 3-3 shows the details of the roof plan for a water tank and tower. By looking at the schedule you can see that specifications are given for more than one type of tank and tower. If a tank with a 21,000-gallon capacity was to be constructed, what type of steel beam would be used and what would be the center-to-center placement distance? (para -4, **a**) (fig 3-3)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 1

Section B-B shows the slope as 2:1, which is the ratio of horizontal to vertical distance. Therefore, horizontal distance/vertical distance = 2/1. (para 3-2)(fig 3-1)

$$\text{Vertical distance} = \frac{\text{Horizontal distance}}{2} = \frac{8 \text{ feet}}{2} = 4 \text{ feet}$$

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 2

The schedule shows a 21,000-gallon tank to be type III. Under the section labeled "tower" and in the steel beam column, it can be seen that the beam and spacing to be used is wide-flange; 1' -8" OC. (para 3-4, a) (fig 3-3)

Section II. Plumbing

3-5. DEFINITION

All piping, apparatus, and fixtures for water distribution and waste disposal within a building is classified as plumbing. Piping for heating systems is called "steam fitting."

3-6. PLUMBING PLANS

As a rule, plumbing plans show the location of fixtures and fittings to be installed and the size and routing of piping. Details are left to the plumber who is responsible for installing a properly connected system in accordance with good plumbing and construction practices. Plumbing plans consist generally of four types of symbols.

- (1) line symbols for piping;
 - (2) pipe-fitting symbols for pipe unions, couplings, and connections;
 - (3) valve symbols to indicate the required control points in the system; and
 - (4) symbols indicating the various plumbing fixtures required by the plan. Before trying to read a plumbing plan, you should familiarize yourself with the symbols shown on figures 3-5 through 3-8 and with the explanation of these symbols given in the following paragraphs.
- a. Piping Symbols.** The type and location of piping will be indicated on the plans by a solid or dashed line. Figure 3-5 shows the standard symbols used on piping diagrams. The size of required piping will be noted alongside each leg on the plan; an example of sizing can be seen on figure 3-6. Piping

up to 12 inches in diameter is referred to by its nominal size, which is approximately equal to the inside diameter. The exact inside diameter will depend on the grade of

LEADER, SOIL OR WASTE (ABOVE GRADE)	_____
(BELOW GRADE)	-----
VENT	-----
COLD WATER	-----
HOT WATER	-----
HOT WATER RETURN	-----
DRINKING WATER	-----
DRINKING WATER RETURN	-----
ACID WASTE	----- ACID
COMPRESSED AIR	—A—A—
FIRE LINE	—F—F—
GAS LINE	—G—G—
TILE PIPE	—T—T—
VACUUM	—V—V—

Figure 3-5. Line symbols for piping.


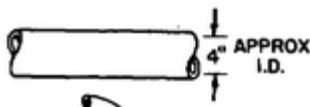


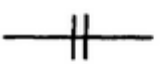

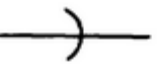





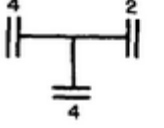
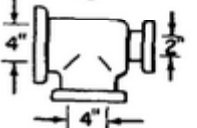
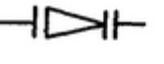



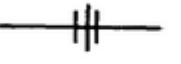

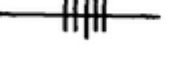

ITEM	SYMBOL	SAMPLE APPLICATION (S)	ILLUSTRATION
PIPE	SINGLE LINE IN SHAPE OF PIPE—USUALLY WITH NOMINAL SIZE NOTED		
JOINT— FLANGED	DOUBLE LINE		
SCREWED	SINGLE LINE		
BELL AND SPIGOT	CURVED LINE		
OUTLET TURNED UP	CIRCLE AND DOT		
OUTLET TURNED DOWN	SEMICIRCLE		
REDUCING OR ENLARGING FITTING	NOMINAL SIZE NOTED AT JOINT		
REDUCER CONCENTRIC	TRIANGLE		
ECCENTRIC	TRIANGLE		
UNION SCREWED	LINE		
FLANGED	LINE		

Figure 3-6. Pipe fitting symbols.

pipe: heavy grades of piping have smaller inside diameters because of their greater wall thickness. Piping over 12 inches in diameter is classified and referred to by its actual outside diameter.

b. Fittings. Figure 3-6 illustrates the symbols used for the most frequently encountered pipe fittings. A more complete list is contained in appendix A. Note that the basic line symbol for a section of pipe shown at the top of figure 3-6 will actually be combined with the line symbology shown in figure 3-5. In this way, you are able to determine not only the size of pipe and method of branching and coupling, but also the use to which the pipe will be put. This is important, in that the type of material from which the pipe is made determines how the pipe should be used. This subject will be discussed in detail in later paragraphs.

c. Valves. Figure 3-7 illustrates the symbols used for the most frequently encountered valves. A more complete list is contained in appendix A. Material and sizes for valves are normally not noted on drawings, but must be assumed from the size and material of the connected pipe. However, when specified on a bill of materials or plumbing takeoff, valves are called out by size, material, and working pressure. For example: 2-inch check valve, brass, 175 pounds working pressure.

d. Fixtures. General appurtenances such as drains and sumps, plus fixtures such as sinks, water closets, and shower stalls are indicated on the plans by pictorial or block symbols. The symbols for those most frequently encountered are illustrated in figure 3-8. The extent to which the symbols are used depends on the nature of the drawing. In many cases, the fixtures will be specified on a bill of materials or other schedule keyed to the plumbing plan. When the fixtures are described on the schedule, the draftsman will often use symbols which closely approximate the shape of the actual fixtures rather than the standard block or circle and the standard abbreviation.

e. Distribution System Materials. Water distribution piping for interior installations is made of

galvanized steel, wrought iron, copper, plastic, or brass. Nickel-silver or chrome-plated piping is used in locations where pipes are exposed to view. Galvanized wrought iron is the material most frequently used in theater of operations construction. Fittings normally are of the same material as the piping and are made with screw or flange connections; screw connections are normally used only for pipe up to 4 inches in diameter. Valves usually are made of brass and may or may not be plated. The material types to be used for the distribution system are designated in the specifications; sizes and special instructions are noted in the drawings.

f. Waste System Materials. Waste systems include all piping from sinks, water closets, urinals, showers, baths, and other fixtures that carry liquids and sewage outside of the building. A waste system consists of a main building drain, branch mains, and soil and vent stacks. Water, soil, and vent piping specifications include the materials of manufacture for each type of piping: cast iron, galvanized steel, wrought iron, copper, brass, lead, or acid-resistant cast-iron pipe. Fittings or traps normally are specified to be of the same material as the pipe.

(1) Galvanized steel and iron piping.

Galvanized steel and iron pipes and fittings are the materials most commonly specified for waste system plumbing installations. Pipe ends have standard pipe threads and all pipes and fittings of this type are joined by standard pipe threads. Such piping is manufactured in three different weights and in diameters from 1/8 inch to 12 inches to any one of several specifications. The fittings are manufactured in all the shapes required to change or intersect flow.






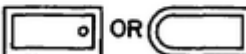
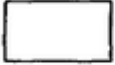










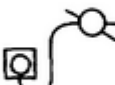



(2) Vitrified clay piping and fittings.

Vitrified clay piping and fittings are used for underground house drains and sewers and normally are noted in the plans as VCP or VP. VCP is sometimes used for soil and vent stacks in theater of operations construction. Pipes and fittings are made with bell-and-spigot ends. Joints are made by inserting the spigot end into the bell and caulking with cement mortar.

ITEM	SYMBOL		ILLUSTRATION
	STRAIGHT	ANGLED	
CHECK VALVE			
GATE VALVE - PLAN			
ELEVATION			
GLOBE VALVE - PLAN			
ELEVATION			
FLOAT VALVE			
HOSE VALVE		OR	
PET COCK			
TRY COCK			

NOTE: SYMBOLS ARE SHOWN FOR SCREWED FITTINGS - SYMBOLS FOR JOINTS ARE ADDED FOR OTHER TYPES

Figure 3-7. Plumbing symbols for valves.

SYMBOL	ITEM	STD ABBR	SYMBOL	ITEM
	DISHWASHER DRAIN	DW D		SHOWER STALL
	DRINKING FOUNTAIN**	DF		WATER CLOSET
	FLOOR DRAIN	FD		WATER CLOSET, WALL HUNG
	ROOF DRAIN	RD		WATER CLOSET, LOW TANK
	TRAP	T		BATH
	GREASE TRAP	GT		
	BATH	B		URINAL, STALL TYPE OR AS SPECIFIED
	DISHWASHER	DW		URINAL, CORNER TYPE
	LAVATORY**	L		URINAL, TROUGH TYPE
	RANGE	R		URINAL, WALL TYPE
	SINK**	S		LAVATORY, CORNER
	STEAM TABLE	ST		LAVATORY, WALL
	CAN WASHER	CW		ELECTRIC WATER COOLER
	DENTAL UNIT	DU		
	HOT WATER TANK	HWT		
	WATER HEATER	WH		
	WASH FOUNTAIN	WF		
	CLEANOUT	CO		
	GAS OUTLET	G		
	HOSE FAUCET	HF		
	LAWN FAUCET	LF		
	HOSE BIB	HB		
	WALL HYDRANT	WH		
	FLOOR DRAIN WITH BACKWATER VALVE			
	SHOWER HEAD			
	SHOWER HEADS, GANG			
				

*STANDARD ABBREVIATION INCLUDED WITH SYMBOL

**TYPE SHOULD BE GIVEN IN SPECIFICATION OR NOTE WHEN THIS SYMBOL IS USED-

Figure 3-8. Symbols for plumbing fixtures.

(3) Cast-iron pipes and fittings. Cast-iron pipes and fittings are used for building drains and for soil, waste, and vent piping. These pipes can be laid in unstable soil without danger of sagging. Pipes and fittings are made with bell-and-spigot and flanged ends. Bell-and-spigot joints are caulked with oakum and lead or a caulking compound; flanged fittings are bolted together to make a joint.

(4) Brass, lead, and copper piping. Brass, lead, or copper piping is used in high quality, or more expensive, systems of waste plumbing. Brass or lead is used when excessive acids or corrosive liquids are present. Such acids or liquids are seldom present in the flow of theater or operations sewerage. Brass pipes and fittings are joined by standard pipe threads, and the fitting shapes are identical to those used for galvanized steel or wrought iron pipe. Lead pipe is very ductile, a feature that is advantageous in speed of installation, but it must be well supported because it deteriorates rapidly if permitted to sag. Copper pipe is not commonly specified for use as waste and vent piping because of the excessive cost of the larger sizes. For making connections, the pipe is cut to the desired length and sweat-soldered to the applicable type of the several fittings available.

3-7. UTILITY PLANS

Figure 3-9 is a typical utility plan for a bath house and latrine showing the water distribution plumbing, waste plumbing, and electrical wiring. For a small structure of this type, only a plan view as shown will normally be provided together with some additional detail drawings. You can see that the schedule of drawings lists three sources of additional information on the plumbing: a standard details drawing, a special details drawing, and a bill of materials. Standard details are indicated by a number and letter in a circle, for example **11G**. Special details are called out on the plan, "DETAIL #6" for example. An example of these standard and special details is shown on figure 3-10. Note that the method of supporting the flush tank, the method of coupling the water pipe to the flush tank, and all other necessary information that could not be shown on the plan is clearly shown on the standard drawing for

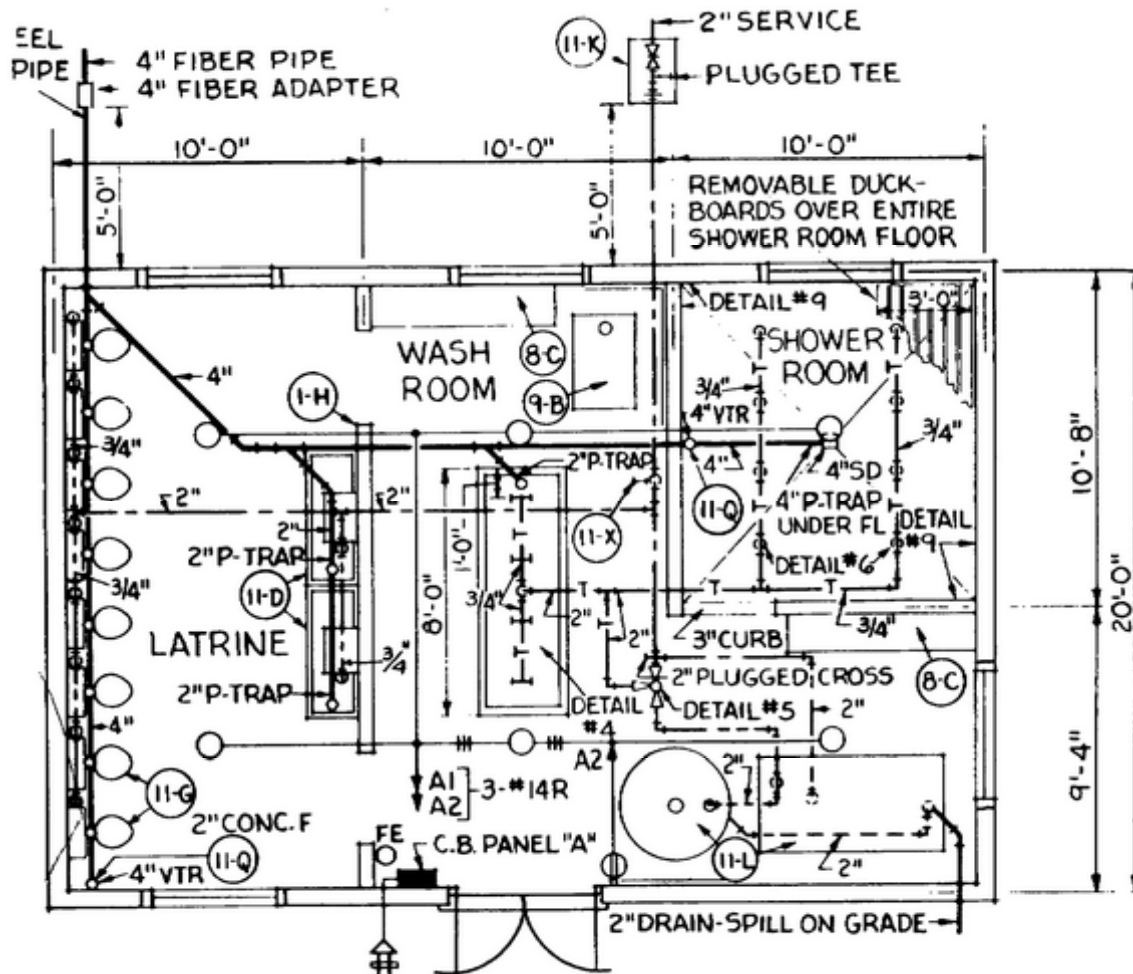
detail **11G**. Also, you can clearly see the required shower head and control valve fitting requirements in special detail #6.

a. Water Distribution. The plan shown on figure 3-9, together with the standard and special detail drawing and a bill of materials, permits the experienced plumber to install the complete water distribution system accurately and satisfactorily. Note that the hot water heater and storage tank connections would be detailed on standard detail drawing **11I**. Notice also that the point at which the incoming water supply piping would be brought up to ceiling level would be shown on the hose bib location standard detail drawing **11X**. Look carefully at the plan and note that the pipe sizes and type are clearly specified in all cases.

b. Waste System. The plan (fig 3-9) shows the building waste system starting at the 4-inch shower drain in the shower room, out to the connection with the 4-inch fiber pipe of the sewerage system. The exact piping arrangement and establishment of the correct slope are left to the plumber. Note that in the plan view, the P-traps below the drains are specified but not actually shown. However, you can see again the use of the standard detail symbols. Note that standard details **11Q** would give all the necessary information on the construction of the two through-the-roof 4-inch vents. When standard details are provided, it is important to remember that they are prepared to cover a large variety of applications and the plumber is expected to make minor alterations to suit particular installations. For example: Note that the 90-degree straight Y in the water closet detail **11G** (fig 3-10), is shown for flow to the left. In the installation plan (fig 3-9), the soil pipe pitch is in the opposite direction so the Y must be installed in the opposite direction.

3-8. BUILDING WASTE SYSTEM NOMENCLATURE

Although the waste system shown in the utility plan (fig 3-9) is relatively simple, it



SCHEDULE OF DRAWINGS		
DWG. NO.	DESCRIPTION	SHEET NO.
72-32	PLANS	1 OF 1
72-31	SPECIAL DETAILS	2 OF 3
72-98	STANDARD DETAILS	1 THRU 8
34-91	STD FRAME BARRACKS TYPE BLDG PANEL SCHED	1 OF 2
72-99	BILL OF MATERIALS	3 OF 4

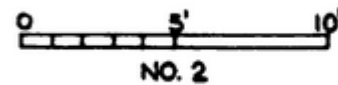
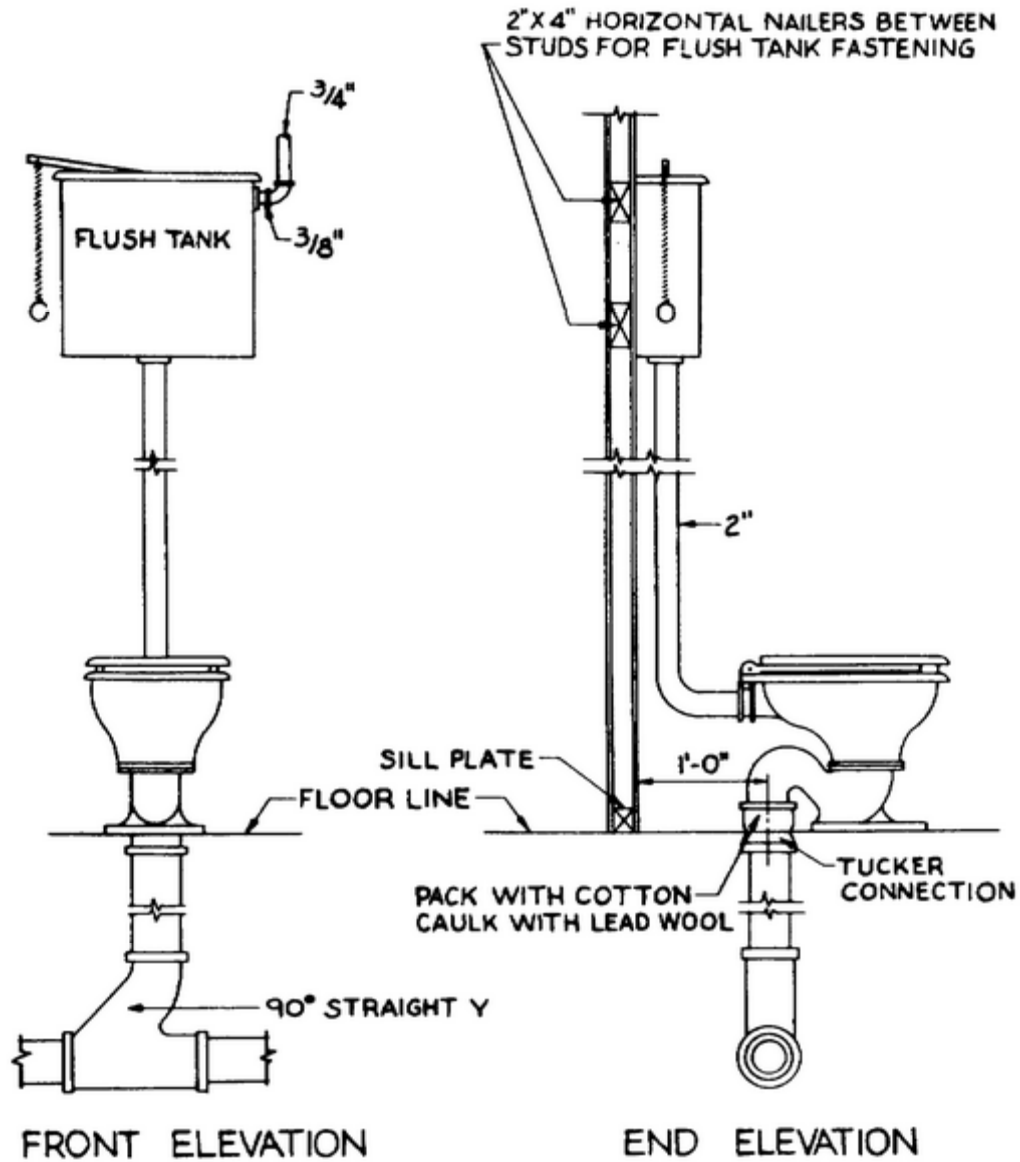


Figure 3-9. Typical utility pan for a bath house and latrine.



WATER CLOSET PLUMBING DETAIL (11-G)

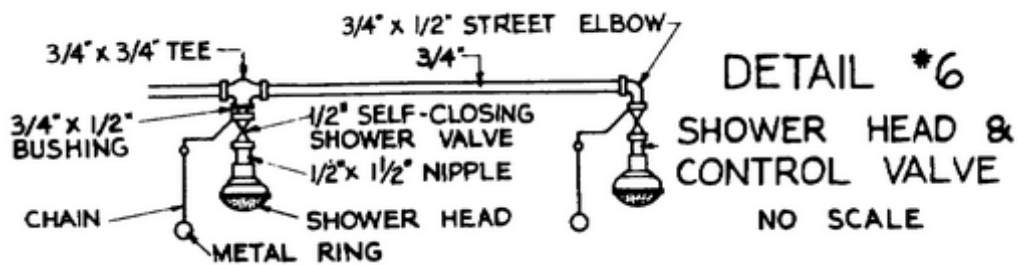


Figure 3-10. Typical plumbing details.

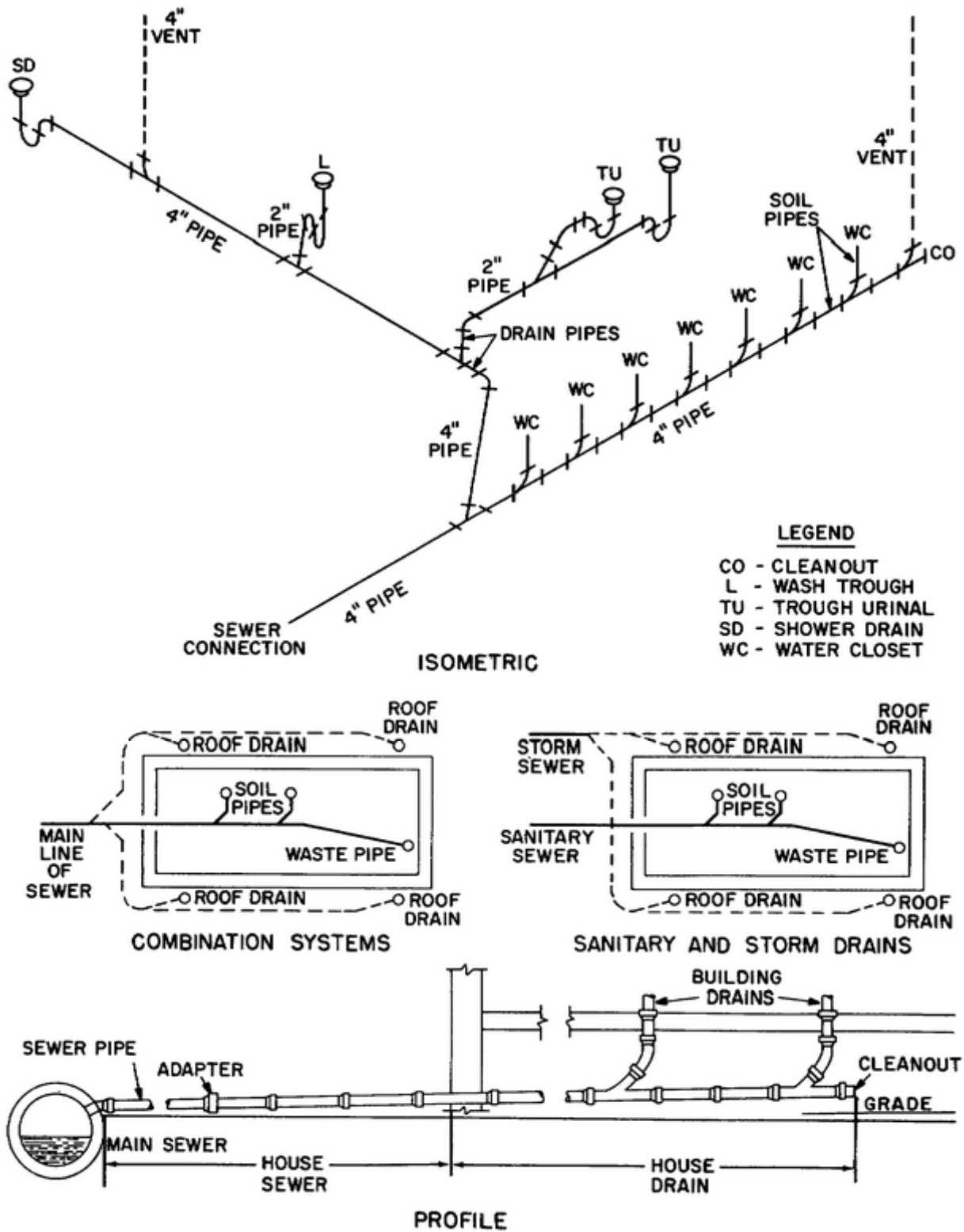


Figure 3-11. Typical building waste system arrangement.

does consist of four basic functional elements which are defined as follows:

a. House Sewer. The house sewer is that part of the waste plumbing system beginning just outside the foundation and terminating at a street sewerage branch or a septic tank. A typical house sewer is shown in section in figure 3-11.

b. House Drain. The house drain is that part of the waste system which receives the discharge of all soil and waste stacks within the building. It may be installed underground or suspended from the first-floor joists. The house drain system is also referred to as the "collection lines" and includes such appliances as house traps, back-flow valves, cleanouts, and area drains. In general, house drains will fall into one of four classes on any set of specific building plans.

(1) Combination system. As shown at the left on figure 3-11, a combination system receives the discharge of the sanitary wastes of the building plus the storm water from the roof and other exterior sources.

(2) Sanitary drain. A sanitary drain receives the discharge of sanitary and domestic wastes only.

(3) Storm drain. As shown at the right of figure 3-11, a storm drain receives storm, clear water, or surface-water wastes only.

(4) Industrial drain. An industrial drain receives liquid waste from industrial equipment or processes and consequently receives little attention in theater of operations construction.

c. Soil Pipe. Soil pipe is that portion of the plumbing system which receives the discharge of water closets and conveys those wastes to the house drain.

d. Waste Pipe. Waste pipe is that part of the drainage system which conveys the discharge of fixtures other than water closets such as sinks, lavatories, urinals, bathtubs, and similar fixtures to the soil pipe.

REVIEW QUESTION 3

Items such as sinks, shower stalls, and water closets are referred to as plumbing fixtures. How are plumbing fixtures most often represented on plumbing plans? (para 3-6, d)

REVIEW QUESTION 4

Utility plans will generally be augmented by additional detail drawings. How are features on a utility plan view referenced when they are to be more fully explained on a standard details drawing? (para 3-7)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 3

Plumbing fixtures are represented by pictorial or block symbols. (para 3-6, b)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 4

A standard detail is referenced by a standard detail symbol which is number and letter within a circle. (para 3-7)

Section III. Sewerage Systems

3-9. DEFINITION

a. A sewerage system is a system of pipes and associated apparatus which carry sewage from buildings to the point of discharge or disposal. A sewerage system includes the sewer pipe or conduits, manholes, flush tanks and, in some cases, storm-drain inlets. In small or medium size systems which are not served by a processing plant, the system may also include facilities for pumping, treatment, and final disposition of sewage.

b. Sewerage systems may be either combined systems or separate systems. In a combined system the conduits carry storm water as well as domestic and industrial wastes. In a separate system, the sanitary sewerage system carries the domestic and industrial wastes and a separate storm sewerage system carries storm water run-off. Because storm water requires little or no treatment before disposal, the separate system greatly reduces the load on treatment facilities.

3-10. PIPES AND FITTINGS

The pipes and fittings for the construction of sewerage systems are well standardized by sanitary codes and general usage. Most generally used pipes and fittings are described as follows:

a. **Vitrified-Clay Tile or Concrete Sewer Pipe.** Pipe sizes of 4 inches to 36 inches in diameter are generally used for sewer system construction. Vitrified-clay tile is highly resistant to all sewage and industrial wastes and acids. Cast, spun, or vibrated concrete pipe in sizes of 12 inches to 108 inches in diameter can frequently be made available. Such

concrete pipe is manufactured with or without steel reinforcing.

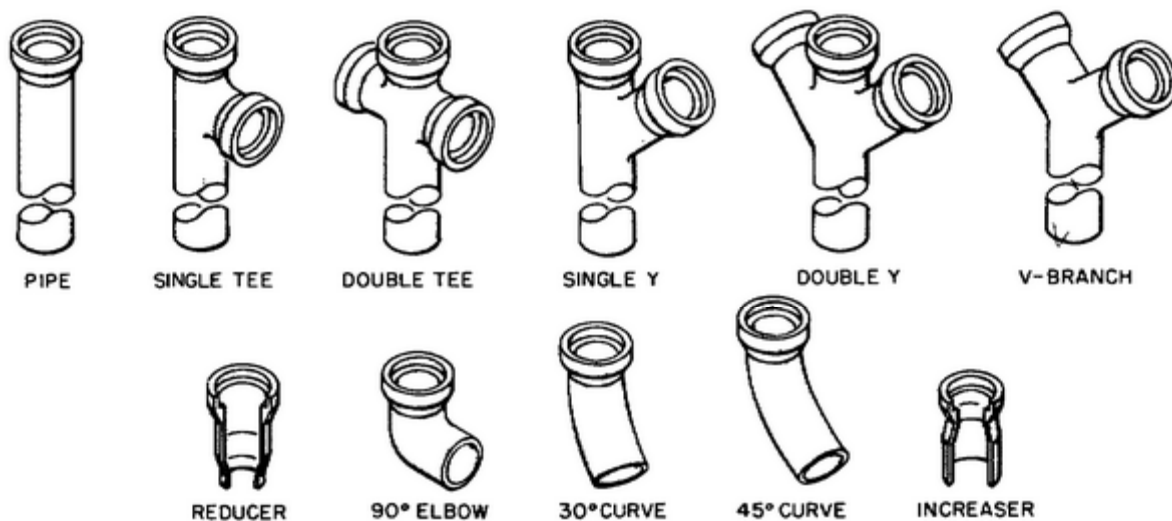
b. **Cast or Wrought-Iron Pipe.** Bell-and-spigot type cast or wrought-iron pipe with leaded joints, in sizes of 4 inches to 48 inches, can be used to make a self-supporting sewer line where relatively short sections of soft ground are encountered in the installation trench. In this situation the pipe is laid on cross-trench saddles of concrete or creosoted timbers.

c. **"Cast-In-Place" Concrete Conduit.** This type of conduit is frequently used where sizes greater than 60-inch diameter pipes are needed for increased capacity in main, trunk, or outfall sewers. These types of drains are not circular in section but are of several arched designs or box-section culvert reinforced-concrete construction.

d. **Wood Stave Pipe.** Machine-banded wood stave pipe with iron joint ends and bands is sometimes used in sizes of 4 inches to 24 inches where vitrified-clay, concrete, or cast-iron pipe is in short supply. Continuous stave pipe, built up and banded in the field, can be made in sizes of 16 inches to 16 feet.

e. **Vitrified-Clay and Cast Iron Pipe Fittings.** The bell-and-spigot type of joint is generally used for sewer system construction. Figure 3-12 illustrates this type of joint. Joints in cast iron pipe are usually sealed with a hot-pour jointing compound over oakum packing. Cement mortar is used for joint sealing of clay sewer pipe.

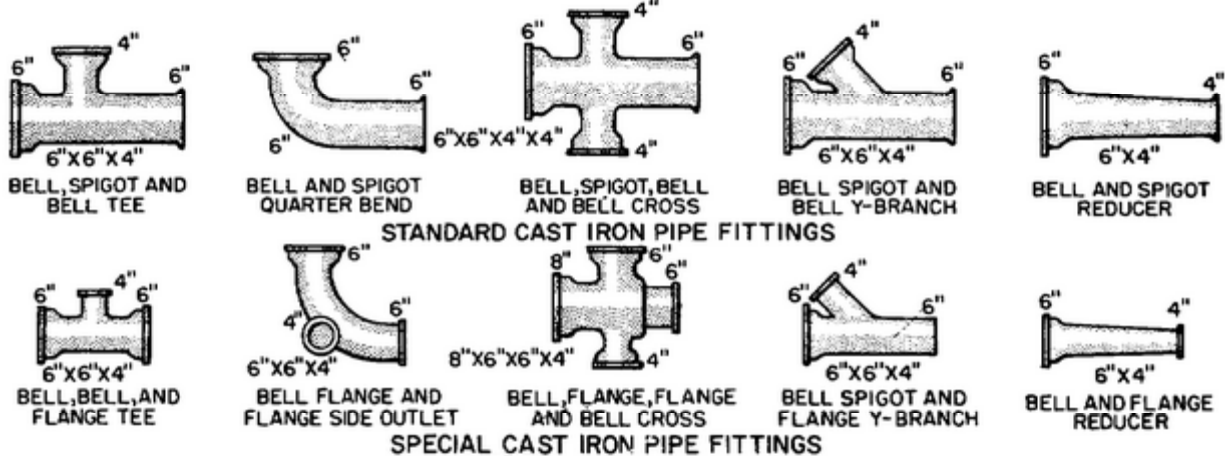
f. **Conventional Symbols.** When house or building connections are shown on sewerage plans, the conventions used are the same



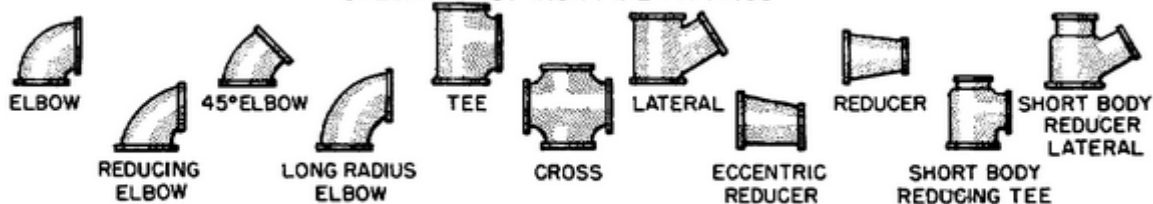
VITRIFIED CLAY PIPE FITTINGS, JOINTS AND CONNECTIONS



STANDARD BELL AND SPIGOT JOINT FOR CAST IRON PIPE



SPECIAL CAST IRON PIPE FITTINGS



AMERICAN STANDARD CAST IRON FLANGED FITTINGS

Figure 3-12. Standard vitrified-clay and cast iron pipe fittings.

as those for plumbing plans. These symbols are covered in the preceding section. Typical building connections are shown in figure 3-13. If you study figure 3-13, you will note the amount of information supplied to the plumber. Note also the specific information given on the caulking and sealing of joints for each type of drain. These are standard detail conventions and will be found on all properly prepared sewerage plans. Figure 3-14 illustrates the conventions used in a typical sewerage system plan. You can see that this is not a simple system; however, it is typical of large-job sewerage systems. Note that reference is made to the actual building plans for the details of the house drain connections.

3-11. MANHOLES

Manholes are generally of circular cross section when made of cement-plastered brick-and-mortar walls set on a concrete base slab. The top is closed with a removable heavy lid that lays in a cast-iron top ring. Where manholes are made of wood the cross section is square or rectangular and has a removable cover set in the roofing timbers. An example of manhole construction is shown in figure 3-15. Note that the manhole depicted is made of brick or concrete and is circular. From the dimensions given, you can see that the base slab slopes (10 inches to 9 inches). The lid is 2 feet, 4 inches in diameter and 3/4 inch thick. There are three shelves around the pipes in an opening whose diameter is 3 feet, 6 inches.

3.12. SEWAGE TREATMENT

a. Grease Traps. Wooden box type grease traps are generally set in the flow line of the house or building sewer to intercept greases and fats from kitchen sinks. Baffles are placed in the boxes to collect floating grease particles but arranged so as not to restrict the flow of the effluent. Figure 3-16 shows the general design of a grease trap.

b. Septic Tanks. These are usually constructed in box-section form of lumber. Concrete, brick, or stone may be used for more permanent installations where such materials are available. Single building tanks of about 500-gallon capacity are sometimes made of steel and supplied ready for installation in the sewer system. Construction details

for a small septic tank are shown in figure 3-17. A larger tank is shown in figure 3-18. An integral part of septic tanks is the dosing tank which is usually constructed of wood or concrete. When wood walls are used, a concrete slab floor is favored as giving the best foundation for installation of the intermittent siphon. Plan and elevation views of a dosage tank are shown as part of the septic tank details in view A-A of figure 3-18.

c. Imhoff Tank. Installations which are sufficiently complex to require a treatment plant will normally have plans prepared for a specific site, accounting for the topography and soil conditions. Where a septic tank is not adequate to handle the load, an Imhoff tank may be used. Typical construction details for a concrete Imhoff tank are shown in figure 3-19.

3-13. DISPOSAL FACILITIES

a. Leaching Tanks. The receivers of raw sewage or septic-tank effluent are leaching tanks or cesspools and can be made of 4-by 4-inch lumber or 5-inch round timbers. Dry masonry may be used for wall construction where time and materials permit. A design for a small leaching tank is shown in figure 3-20.

b. Sand-Filter Fields. Either vitrified clay or concrete drain tile, without sealed joints, is used for piping in both subsurface irrigation and subsurface sand-filter disposal systems. Approved design methods, giving plans and profiles, for installation of drain tile in the two types of irrigation and sand-filter fields are shown in figures 3-21 and 3-22.

(1) Distribution boxes. To change the flow of effluent to different sections of a filtration field, a distribution box is used and can be made of wood, concrete, or brick. The diversion gate is usually of wood, with a handle-slot, so that its position in the distribution box can be moved to change the sewage flow direction. See view B-B on figure 3-18 for the installation requirements of a distribution box.

(2) Size. Figures 3-18 and 3-23 illustrates a typical small sewerage system which

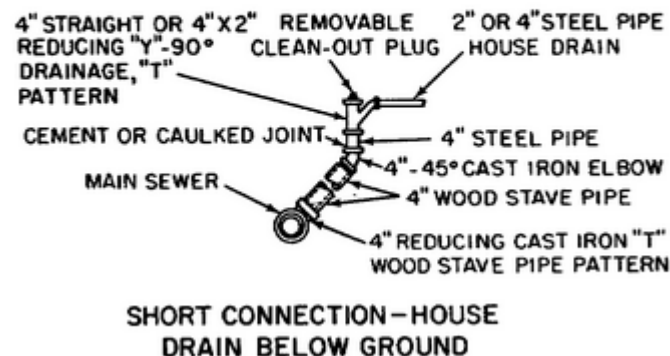
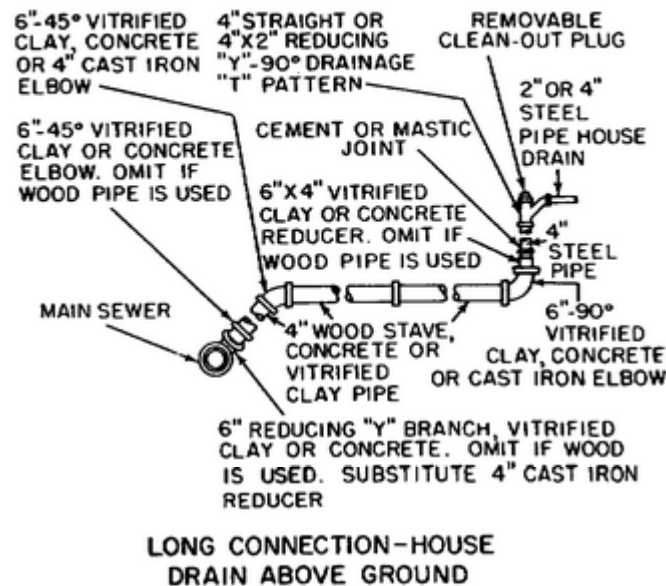
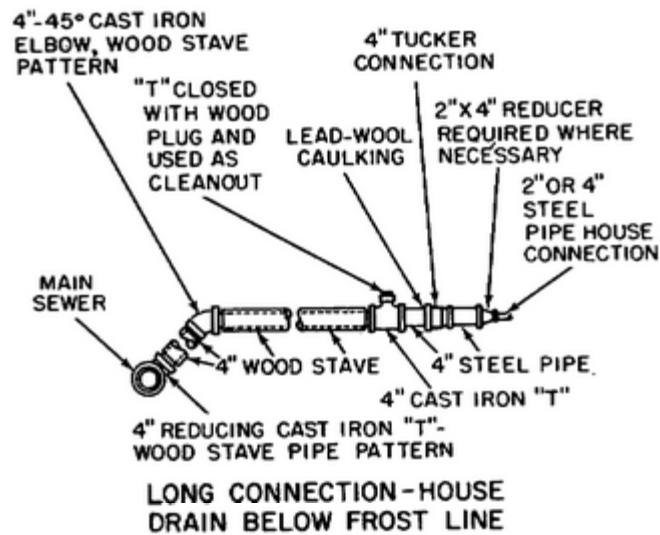


Figure 3-13. Typical building connections.

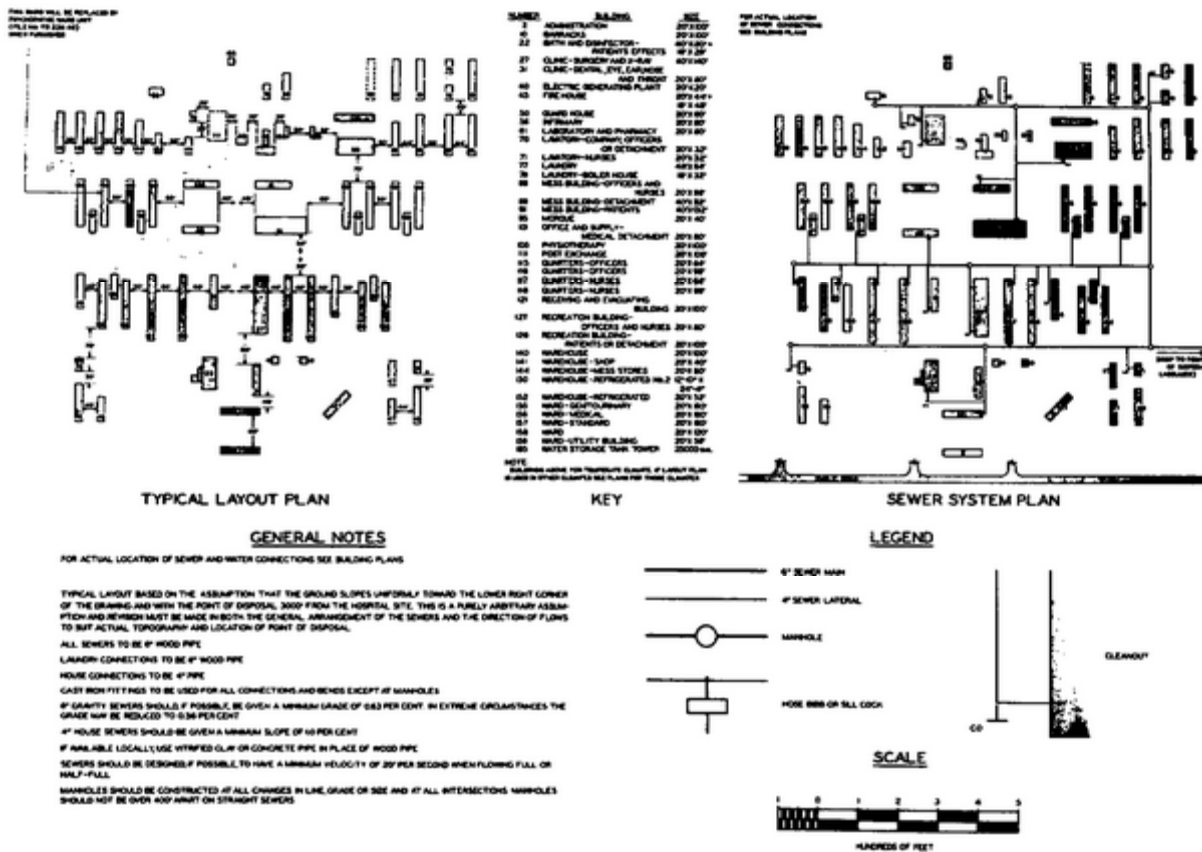


Figure 3-14. Typical sewer system plan.

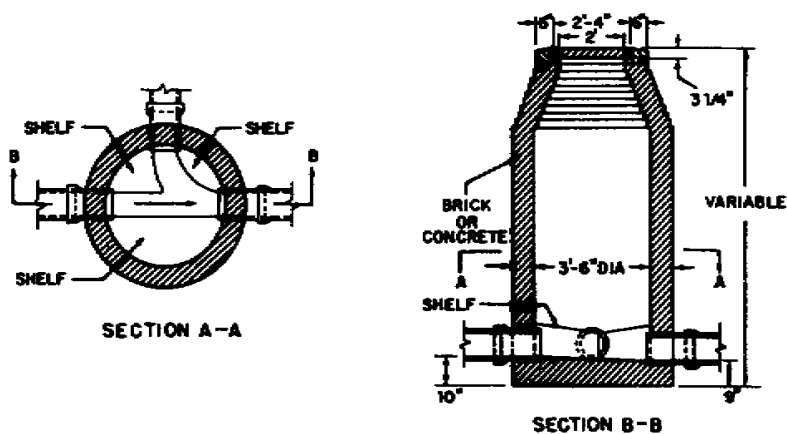


Figure 3-15. Manhole construction.

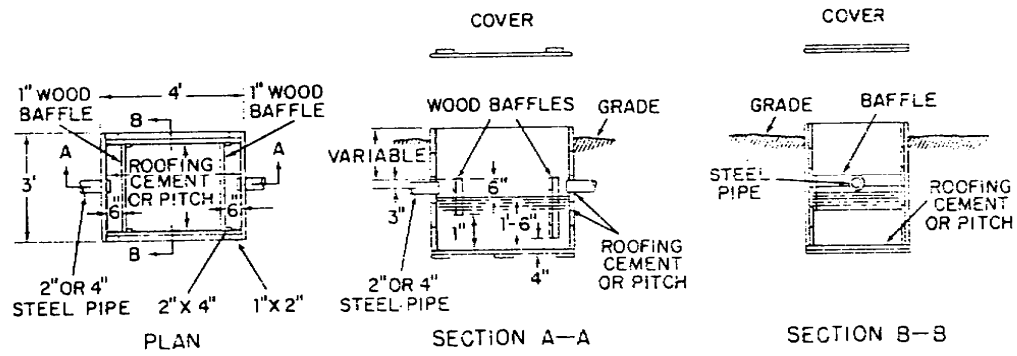


Figure 3-16. Grease trap.

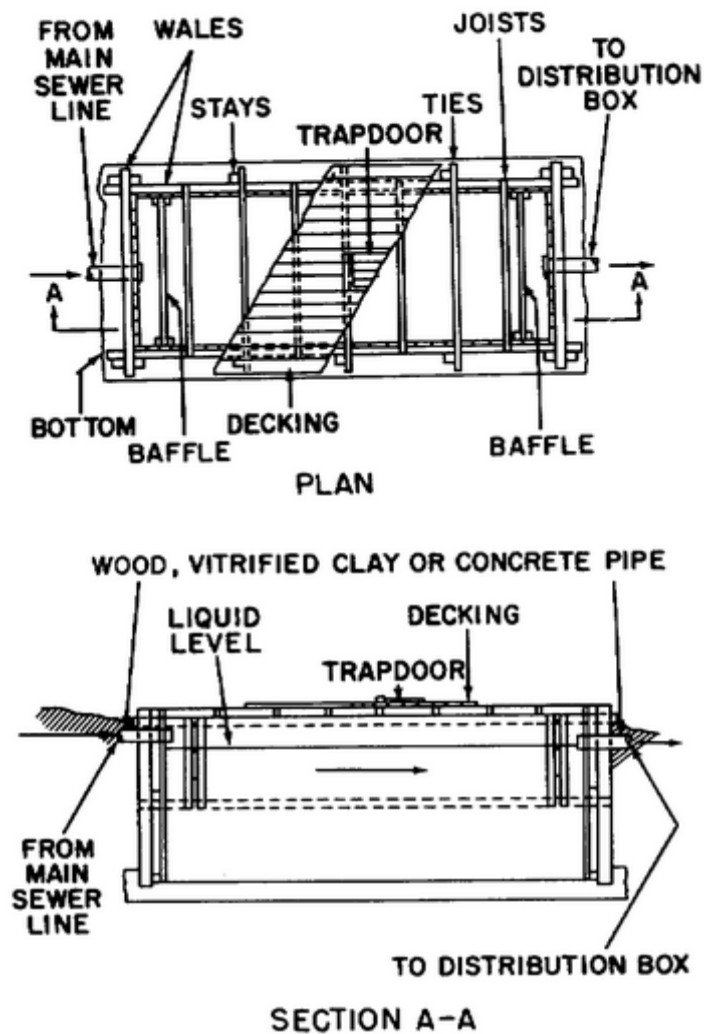


Figure 3-17. Typical small septic tank.

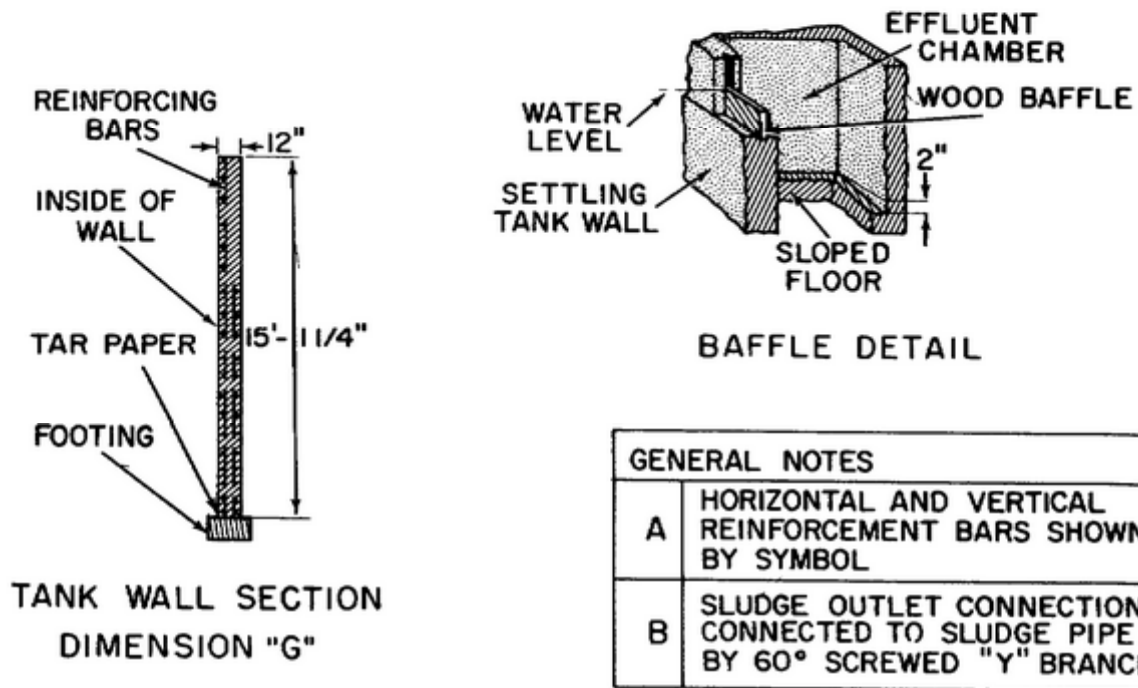
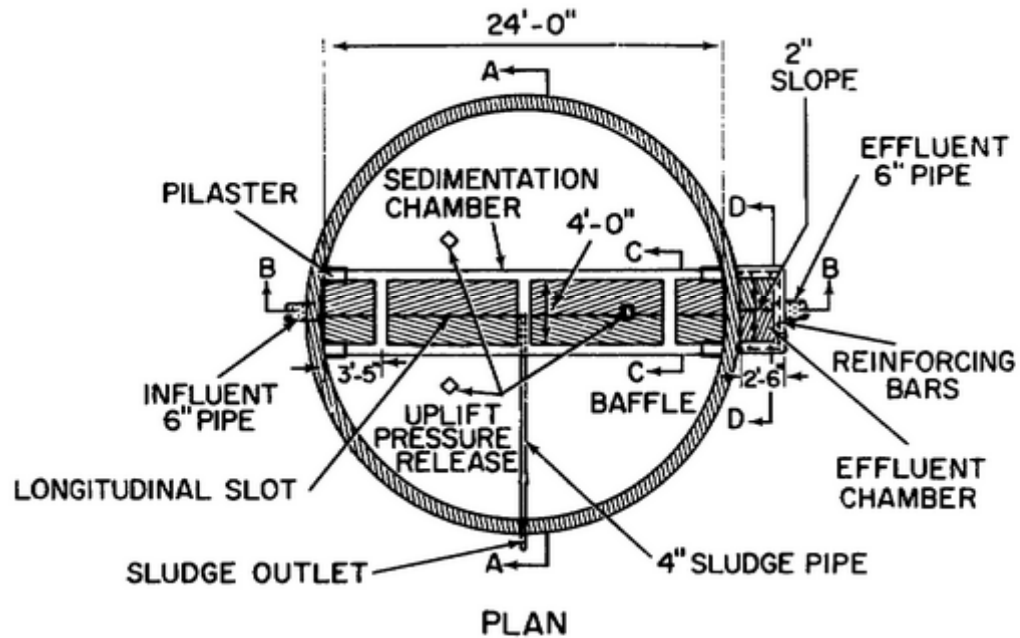


Figure 3-19. Imhoff tank, 25,000-gallon capacity.

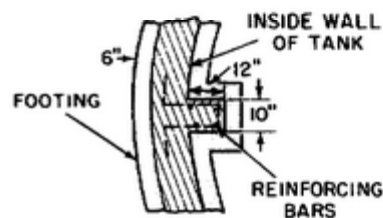
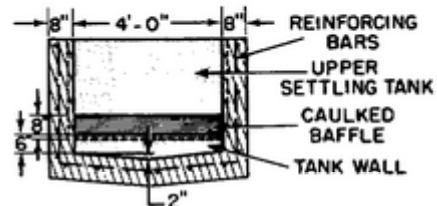
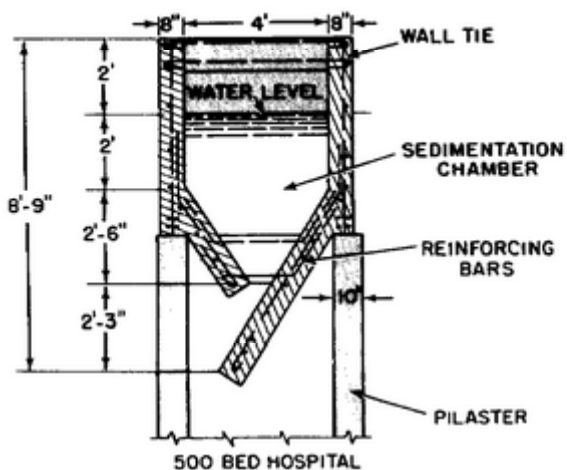
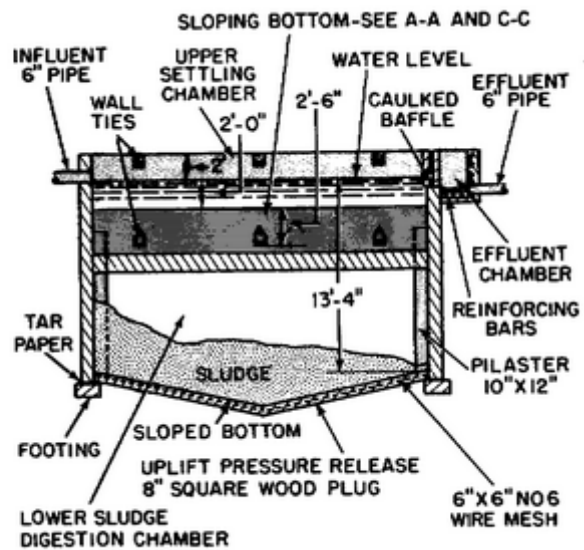
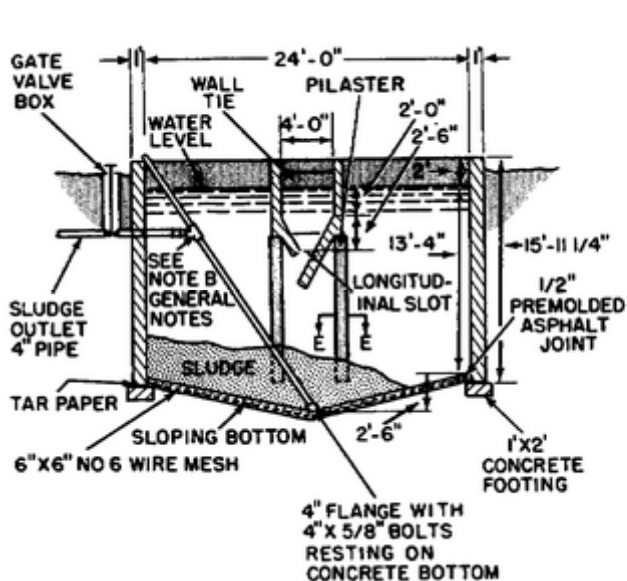


Figure 3-19. Continued.

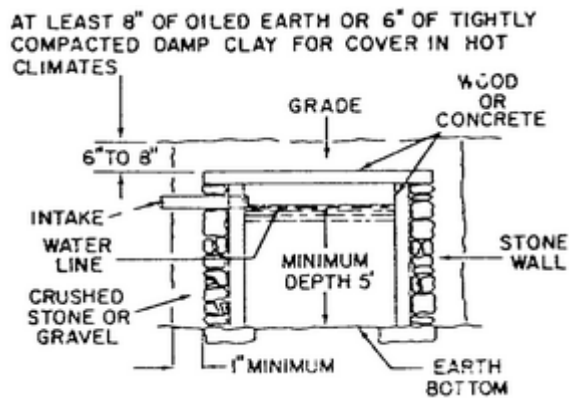


Figure 3-20. Leaching tank.

uses both a septic tank and a subsurface sand filter as the final sewage disposal point. Because of the long pipe runs and the use of the sand filter, both a plan and profile view of the system are required to inform the pipe fitters of construction requirements.

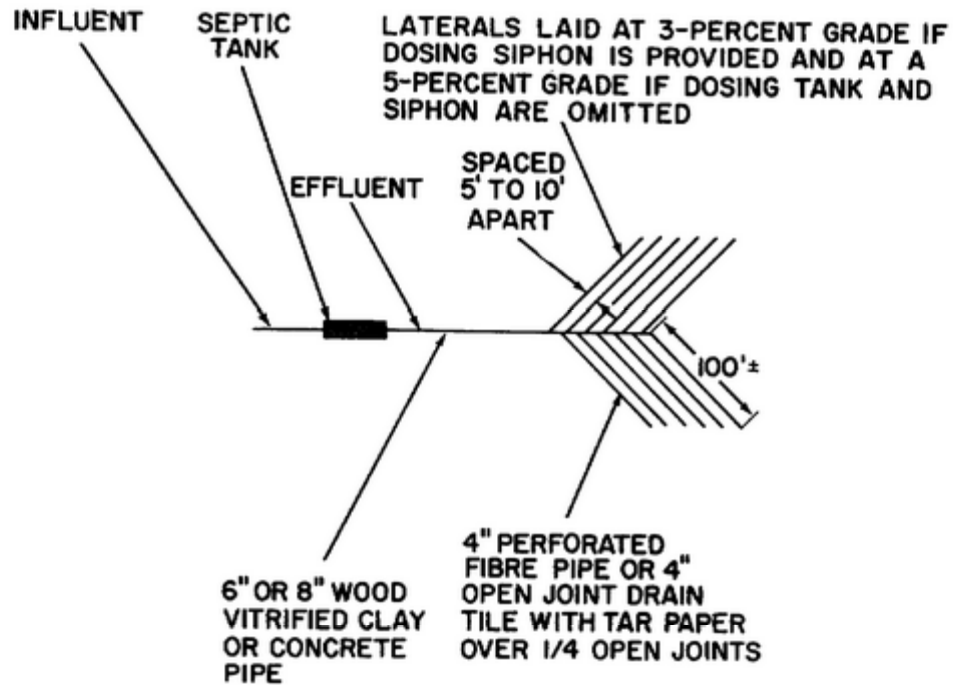
3-14. SEWERAGE SYSTEM PLANS

a. Topography. Unless a sewerage plan is prepared for a specific location and facility, it will represent only a typical plan for the type of facility covered. The topography and disposal facilities at the building site will determine the actual piping layout and arrangement. For example, the plan illustrated on figure 3-14 is based on the assumption of a uniform slope downward to the right. If the actual slope at the site is different the plan would have to be rearranged to suit the topography.

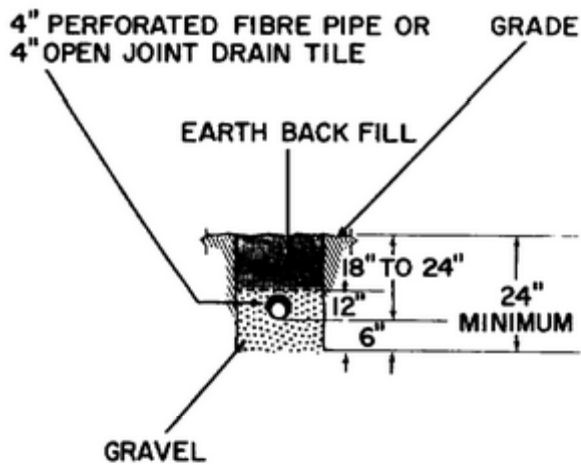
b. Details From Plan View. If you start at the left side of figure 3-18, you can see that five buildings are to be connected to the main sewer line by five 4-inch vitrified tile pipe sections. The pipe sections are to be installed laterally. Two manholes are to be provided, one at each end of the main sewer line. The first manhole is given as the zero reference point for all other measurements. The point of connection of the first lateral is given as $0 + 28.2$ feet. These numbers indicate the distance between connection points in hundreds of feet plus feet and decimal fractions of a foot. For example the symbol

$0 + 28.2$ reads 28.2 feet, the symbol $1 + 14.6$ at manhole No. 2 indicates that this connection point is 114.6 feet from the reference point $0 + 00$. You can now easily determine the distance between all the remaining connection points on the plan. Although you can read the distances between points on the plan view, you might note that you cannot determine the depth at which the pipe is to be laid in the ground from this view. Another view is required and that is the profile view. The profile view will be discussed in paragraph c following. Now, from figure 3-18 you can see that the main sewer line is to be connected to a septic tank whose dimensions are given as 6 feet by 8 feet by 22.5 feet. Again it would be necessary to refer to the profile view to determine at what elevation (depth below building level) the bottom of the tank is required to be placed. Note that you are directed to see enlarged view AA of the septic tank for details of the required construction. Finally, the outfall of the septic tank is connected to a subsurface sand filter via a distribution box. The plan tells you that the filter consists of distribution lines laid above a separate system of drain lines. Note that only the distribution lines are connected to the distribution box. The under drain lines form a separate system. Note that the extent of the subsurface sand filter is not completely specified in figure 3-18. The actual size of the filter must be determined at the site by the performance of the soil absorption test. The same test must be performed to determine the necessary percolation area when a leaching tank is used as the disposal field.

c. Details From Profile View. Figure 3-23 is the profile view that complements the plan of figure 3-18. The profile is taken along the path of sewage flow in the manner of an alined section. To provide for easier reading, note that the vertical scale is expanded so that one square equals 1 foot, whereas for the horizontal scale, one square equals 10 feet. Note that the floors of the buildings are shown at an elevation of 200 feet. It is common practice to assign a convenient round number to this reference point. The actual elevation might have been 196 or 207 feet, but for purposes of convenience the round number 200 is used. All elevations are then referenced to this point. Note that the laterals shown on figure 3-18

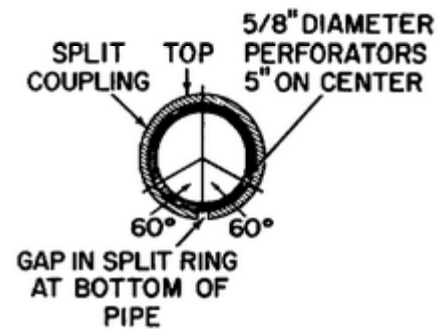


PLAN



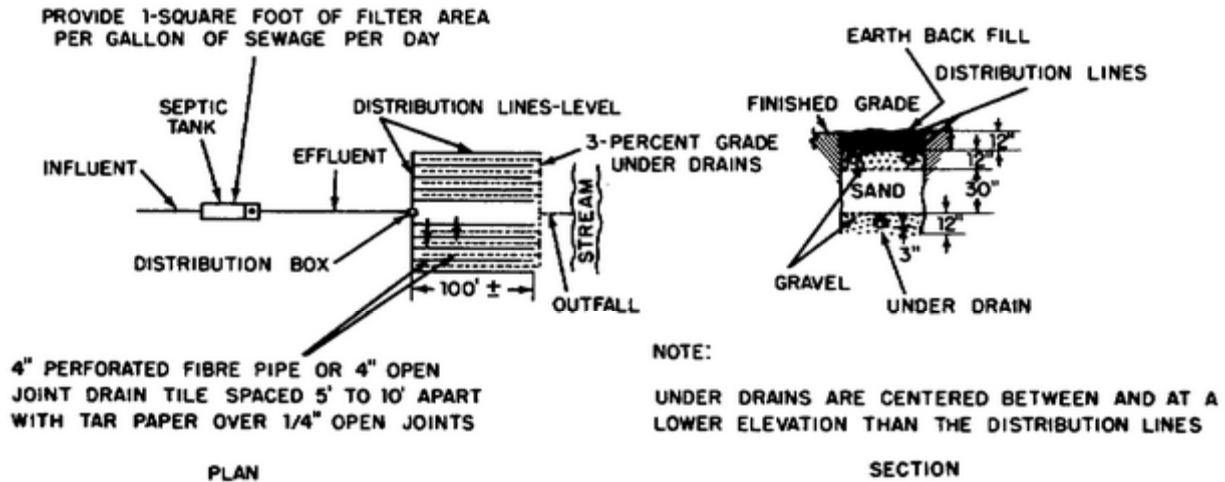
NOTE:
NO UNDER DRAINS PROVIDED FOR THIS LAYOUT.
FOR METHODS OF DETERMINING INSTALLATION
SIZE, SEE "SOIL TEST" NOTES.

TYPICAL SECTION

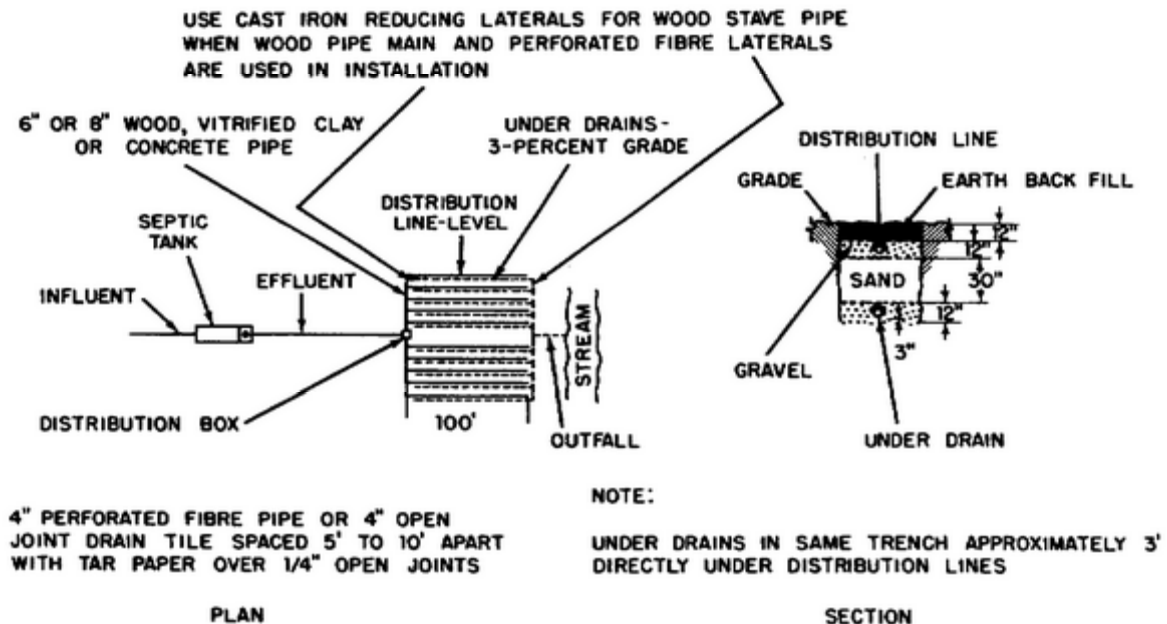


PERFORATED FIBRE PIPE SECTION

Figure 3-21. Typical subsurface irrigation construction.



SUBSURFACE SAND FILTER A



SUBSURFACE SAND FILTER B

Figure 3-22. Typical sand-filter fields.

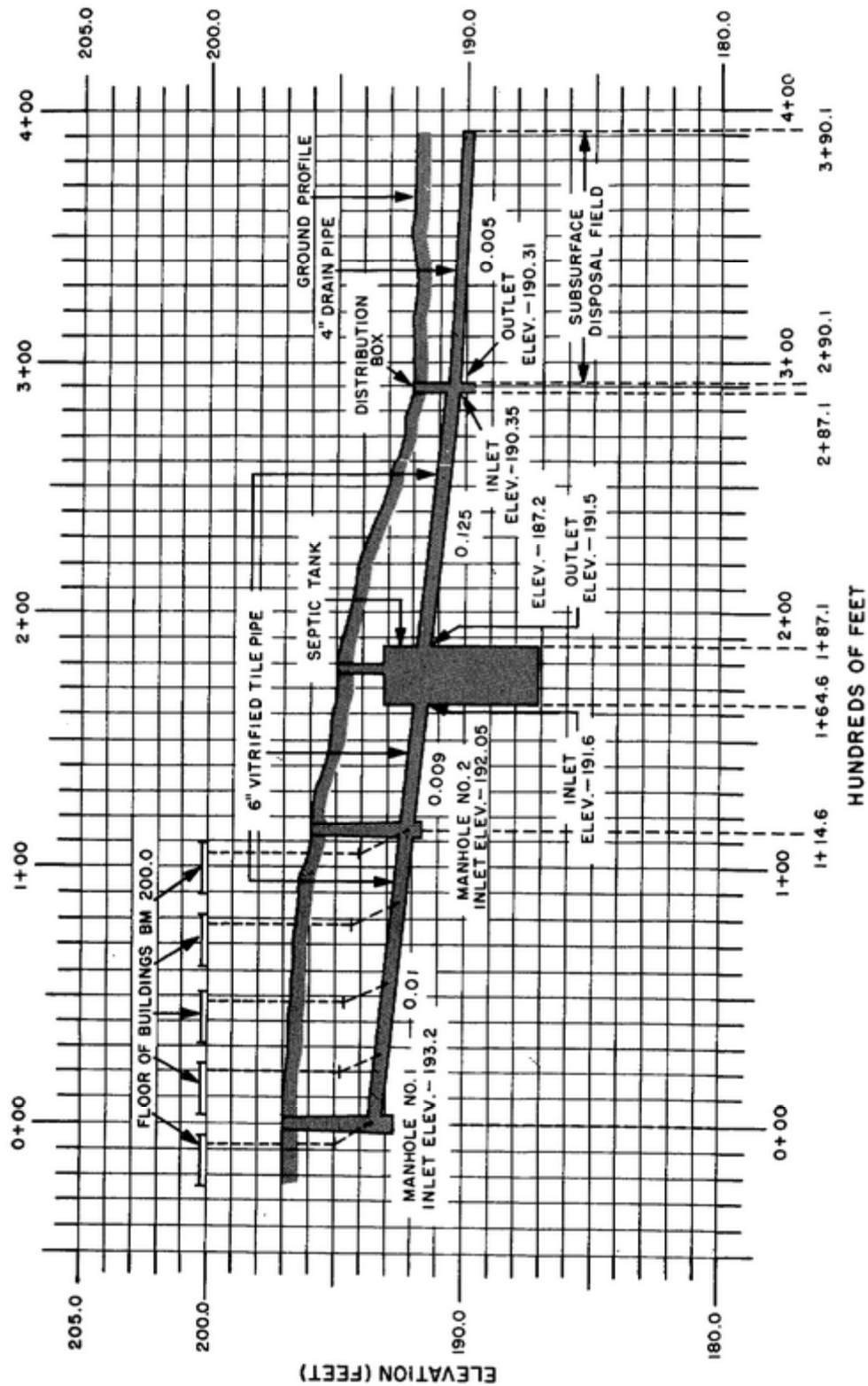


Figure 3-23. Typical small sewerage system, profile view.

are actually dropped 6.8 feet as shown on figure 3-23 before connection is made to the main sewer line. Look carefully at each section of the main sewer and note the numbers 0.01, 0.009, 0.125, 0.005. These numbers indicate the grade of each section and are calculated as follows: From the profile, you can read the inlet elevation of manhole No. 1 as 193.2 feet and the inlet elevation at manhole No. 2 as 192.05. The distance between these two points is given as 114.6 feet. Therefore, the grade is $(193.2 - 192.05) \div 114.6 = 1.15 \div 114.6 = 0.01$, or a 1-percent grade, or a 1-foot drop in 100 feet. It was stated in paragraph **b** preceding that although the size of the septic tank could be read from the plan view, the actual elevation of the base could not be determined from the plan view. From the profile view you can now read the required depth of the footing for the septic tank. It is shown to be at an elevation of 187.2 feet or 12.8 feet below the floor level of the buildings. One final point of major importance that cannot be completely read from either the plan or profile views is the extent, or area, of the subsurface sand filter. As was noted earlier, this must be determined by a soil absorption test which is performed as follows:

(1) Soil absorption test procedure. Dig test holes (at least three) 1 foot square to the proposed depth of the tile and fill them with water to a depth of 1 foot. After the water has seeped away, and while the bottom of the holes are still wet, refill the holes to a depth of 6 inches. Note the average time required for the water level to drop one inch and compute the necessary percolation area from the data in table 3-1.

(2) Example 1. A sand filter must handle 2,000 gallons per day and the average time noted in the soil absorption test is 10 minutes. From table 3-1, this corresponds to 1.7 gallons per day per square foot.

Table 3-1. Soil Absorption Rates

Time Required For Water Level To Fall 1 Inch* (Minutes)	ABSORPTION GALLONS PER DAY	
	Per Sq. Ft. of Footings Bottom in Test Holes	Per Sq. Ft. of Percolating Area in Leaching Tanks
2	1.0	5.0
3	0.6	3.0
5	0.4	2.0
10	0.2	1.0
20	0.1	0.5
30	0.08	0.3
60	0.05	0.2

*See paragraph (c) of 1610-2-1 for procedure.

If trenches are 18 inches wide,

$$\frac{1180 \text{ SQ. FT.}}{1.5 \text{ FT.}} = 790 \text{ ft. of trench and pipe will be required}$$

(3) Example 2. A leaching tank must handle 400 gallons per day (GPD) and the average time noted in the soil test is 2 minutes. From table 3-1, this corresponds to an absorption rate of 4.3 gallons per day per square foot.

$$\frac{400 \text{ GPD}}{4.3 \text{ GPD/SQ. FT.}} = 93 \text{ SQ. FT.}$$

(4) Capacity. The following information is general in nature and will have been taken into consideration when the plans were made. The necessary capacity for a sewerage system is normally based on handling 25 gallons per day per man, or 50 gallons per day per bed for hospitals. A facility housing 500 troops, therefore, would require sewage disposal facilities capable of handling 12,500 gallons per day. A 100-bed hospital would require disposal facilities capable of handling 5,000 gallons per day. Septic tanks must normally be capable of detaining sewage for 24 hours. Sewer piping is usually designed for capacities of three times the average flow in order to handle peak loads, but pipe less than 6 inches in diameter should not be used for main sewers, and the rate of flow should not be less than 2 feet per second when full or half full to prevent clogging regardless of the capacity required. The minimum velocity is usually specified as 1.5 feet per second.

REVIEW QUESTION 5

A sewerage system consists of pipes and associated apparatus which carry sewage from buildings to the point of discharge or disposal. Which of the following is a correct statement regarding conventions used on sewerage plans when house or building connections are shown? (para 3-10, **f**)

- a.** The conventions used are the same as those for plumbing plans.
- b.** The conventions used differ from plumbing conventions because different materials are used.
- c.** The conventions used differ from plumbing conventions because different types of fittings are used.
- d.** The conventions used differ from plumbing conventions because different installation techniques are required.

REVIEW QUESTION 6

An integral part of septic tanks is the dosing tank which is usually constructed of wood or concrete. When wood walls are used, which type of floor is preferred? (para 3-12, **b**)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 5

The conventions used to show building connections on a sewerage plan are the same as those for plumbing plans. (pa 3-10, f)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 6

When wood walls are used, a concrete slab floor is favored as giving the best foundation for installation of the intermittent siphon. (para 3-12, b)

Section IV. Electrical Distribution System

3-15. DEFINITION

Electrical distribution is the delivery of power to the using premises from the power plant or substation through feeders and mains carried on poles or placed underground.

3-16. NOMENCLATURE

The general term "power system" covers the large-capacity wiring installations and associated equipment for the delivery of electrical energy from the point of generation to the point of use. The power system is generally considered to be a combination of two sections: the transmission system and the distribution system. The difference between the two sections depends on the function of each as defined below. At times, in small power systems, the difference tends to disappear and the transmission system merges with the distribution system, and the delivery network as a whole is referred to as the "distribution system."

a. Transmission System. A transmission system usually consists of step-up and step-down transformer stations, transmission lines, and switching or substations. The system is used for the transmission of bulk power to load centers and large industrial users beyond the economical service range of the regular primary distribution lines.

b. Distribution System. A distribution system usually consists of primary distribution lines or networks, service transformer banks, and secondary lines or networks. The system is used to deliver

power from generating stations or transmission substations to various points of use. While the term "distribution system" is normally used to designate the outside lines, they are frequently continued inside the buildings to power outlets for electrical equipment operation. These power outlets are distinct from the usual lighting circuits or "interior wiring."

3-17. CONVENTIONS

The conventions used on the electrical utility plans are symbols that indicate the general layout, units, related equipment, and fixtures to be installed. Some common symbols you should be familiar with are shown in figures 3-24 and 3-25. You will find additional symbols which are in common use listed in appendix A.

3-18. MATERIALS AND FITTINGS

The principal difference between the wiring materials for interior wiring and distribution lines is size. Larger sizes of wire are needed for greater current-carrying capacities. Spacing of wires and insulation is increased to give protection needed where high voltages are used. With the increase of wire sizes, larger conduits, outlet or junction boxes, insulators, connectors, fuses, switches, and circuit breakers are needed. Tables 3-2 through 3-5 list the dimensions and current-carrying capacity for the most frequently used wire types and sizes. Sizes are listed by American Wire Gauge (AWG) numbers. Current-carrying capacity is based on a maximum air temperature of 100 degrees F. If the maximum air

TWO CONDUCTOR SERVICE
ABOVE GROUND
PRIMARY

SECONDARY

STREET LIGHTING

UNDERGROUND
BURIED CABLE

DUCT LINE

THREE OR MORE CONDUCTORS
(NO. OF CROSS LINES EQUALS NO. OF CONDUCTORS)

INCOMING LINES

CONDUIT OR GROUPING OF CONDUCTORS

BRANCHING OF GROUP OF CONDUCTORS
(NO. INDICATES NO. OF CONDUCTORS IN BRANCH)

GROUND

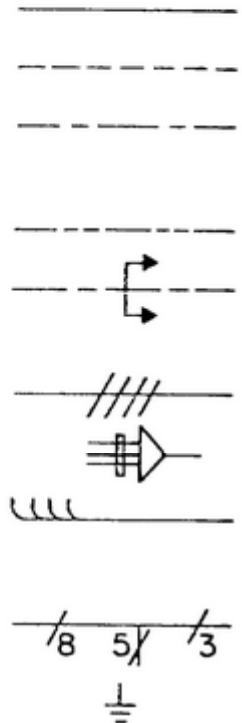


Figure 3-24. Line symbols for electric power distribution.

temperature is lower, add 3 percent for each 5 degrees F; if higher, subtract 2 percent for each 5 degrees F. You will generally find that unit electrical power devices have pertinent wiring and hook-up diagrams on the name plate or other prominent place.

3-19. ELECTRICAL DISTRIBUTION PLAN

a. Figure 3-26 shows the electric distribution information normally provided on the utility plan for a small installation. The letter in circle at each building (A, B, or C) indicates the phase or phases to be connected to the building. Figure 3-27 is a pictorial view of the installation. You can see that only the total connected load need be listed for an installation this small. The utility layout for a larger installation would provide you with a more detailed tabulation of electrical loads for each load center as shown in figure 3-28. The tabulation shown is for the hospital layout shown in figure 3-2. The connected load is the total power requirement of all the items

connected to the system. The demand load is the maximum amount of power which may be expected to be required at one time. Note that the demand load is less than the connected load for some services because not all units would be operated at one time, and the overall demand is less than the sum of the individual demand loads because the peak demand would not occur on all services at the same time.

b. In addition to the layout plans, detail drawings are used to show complex installations, standard connection methods, and specifications. On figure 3-26, note that the number and size is specified for wiring on some spans (as 4-#6, for example), the number of wires is indicated by cross lines on the service drops (as to building number 3), and no specification is given on some spans (such as those to building number 4). A note on the drawing will normally specify the minimum wire size that can be used for those not specified. As shown in figure 3-24, two wires are used unless a larger number is de-

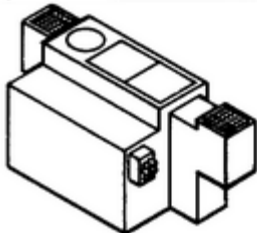

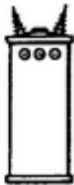





















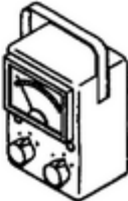
ITEM	SYMBOL	ILLUSTRATION (S)
TRANSFORMER MANHOLE OR VAULT	TM	
TRANSFORMER		
CONSTANT CURRENT TRANSFORMER		
POLE		
POLE WITH DOWN GUY WITH ANCHOR		
CIRCUIT BREAKER - AIR	 OR 	
OIL		
FUSE		
SWITCH, MANUAL DISCONNECT		
LIGHTNING ARRESTER		
CAPACITOR (STRAIGHT LINE IS POSITIVE SIDE)		
INSTRUMENT OR METER	 OR 	
* A- AMMETER AH- AMPERE HOUR METER CRO- OSCILLOGRAPH F- FREQUENCY METER OHM- OHMMETER OSC- OSCILLOGRAPH PH- PHASE METER	REC- RECORDING RD- RECORDING DEMAND METER VAR- VARMETER V- VOLTMETER WH- WATT-HOUR METER W- WATTMETER	

Figure 3-25. Conventional symbols for electric distribution equipment.

Table 3-2. Characteristics of Bare Solid Copper Wire

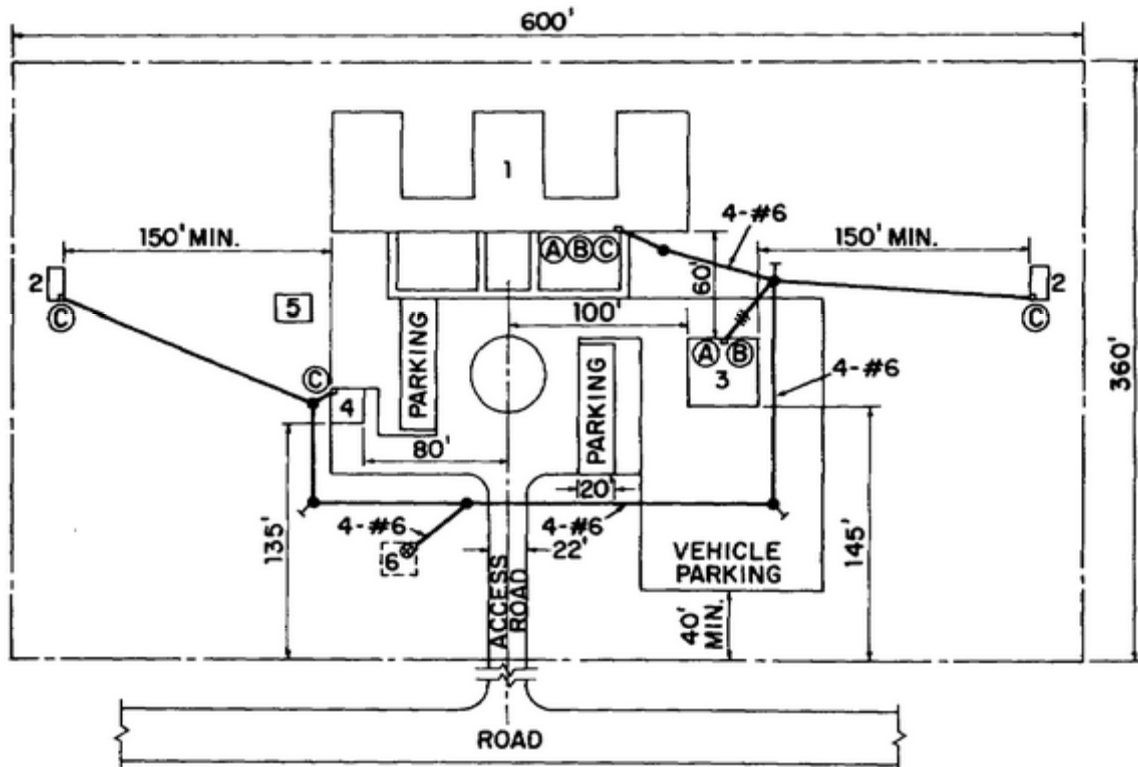
Size (AWG)	Diameter (inches)	Weight (pounds per 1,000 ft.)	Resistance (ohms per 1,000 feet at 20°C.)	Current-Carrying Capacity (amperes)
4/0	0.4600	639.8	0.04893	332
3/0	.4096	507.3	.06170	290
2/0	.3648	402.4	.07780	249
1/0	.3250	319.4	.09811	216
1	.2893	253.0	.1237	184
2	.2576	200.6	.1560	160
4	.2043	126.2	.2480	118
6	.1620	79.35	.3944	89
8	.1285	49.92	.6271	66

Table 3-3. Characteristics of Weatherproof Solid Copper Wire.

Size (AWG)	Diameter over Insulation (inches)		Weight (pounds per 1,000 ft.)		Resistance (ohms per 1,000 ft. at 20°C.)	Current-carrying Capacity (amperes)
	Three-braid	Two-braid	Three-braid	Two-braid		
4/0	0.640	0.609	767	723	0.04893	368
3/0	.593	.562	629	587	.06170	318
2/0	.515	.500	502	467	.07780	274
1/0	.500	.468	407	377	.09811	237
1	.453	.422	316	294	.12370	203
2	.437	.390	260	239	.15600	176
4	.359	.328	164	151	.24800	130
6	.328	.296	112	100	.39440	98
8	.296	.250	75	66	.62710	71

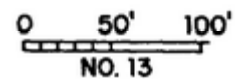
Table 3-4. Characteristics of Bare Stranded Copper Wire

Size (AWG)	Diameter (inches)	Weight (pounds per 1,000 ft.)	Resistance (ohms per 1,000 ft. at 20°C.)	Wires in strand	Current-Carrying Capacity (amperes)
4/0	0.5275	653.14	0.04997	19	338
3/0	.4644	512.07	.06293	7	294
2/0	.4134	406.98	.07935	7	252
1/0	.3684	322.39	.10007	7	219
1	.3279	255.45	.12617	7	186
2	.2919	202.50	.15725	7	161
4	.2316	127.40	.25000	7	119
6	.1836	80.10	.39767	7	90



SITE & UTILITY LAYOUT
10,000 S.F. ADMINISTRATION HEADQUARTERS
SCALE NO. 13

ELECTRICAL NOTES	
CONNECTED LOAD	
10,000 S.F. ADMINISTRATION HQ	11.31 KW



SCHEDULE OF FACILITIES			
NO.	ITEM	QTY	SIZE OR UNIT
BUILDINGS			
1	ADMINISTRATION - HQ BUILDING - "E" SHAPE	1	10,000 S.F.
2	LATRINE - PIT TYPE	2	10' X 20'
3	SHOP - MOTOR REPAIR	1	40' X 40'
4	STOREHOUSE	1	20' X 20'
OTHER CONSTRUCTION			
	ROAD - DBL LANE - 6" MACADAM	0.02	MILE
	ROAD - 9' SERVICE - 4" MACADAM		
5	SUMP - FIRE PROTECTION	1	10,000 GAL
	VEHICLE PARKING - (HARDSTANDS) 4" MACADAM	1	1,000 S.Y.
	SITE AREA	4.9	ACRES
6	GENERATOR BLDG. (IF REQ'D)		

Figure 3-26. Typical electric distribution plan.

Table 3-5. Characteristics of Weatherproof Stranded Copper Wire

Size (AWG)	Diameter over Insulation (inches)		Weight (pounds per 1,000 ft.)		Wire in strand	Resistance (ohms per 1,000 ft. at 20° C.)	Current- Carrying Capacity (amperes)
	Three- braid	Two- braid	Three- braid	Two- braid			
1/8	0.812	0.687	800	745	19	0.04997	374
1/4	.734	.671	653	604	7	.06293	322
3/8	.687	.625	522	482	7	.07935	277
1/2	.640	.578	424	388	7	.10007	240
3/4	.593	.531	328	303	7	.12617	205
1	.531	.468	270	246	7	.15725	178
2	.437	.390	170	155	7	.25000	131
4	.346	.300	115	103	7	.39767	99

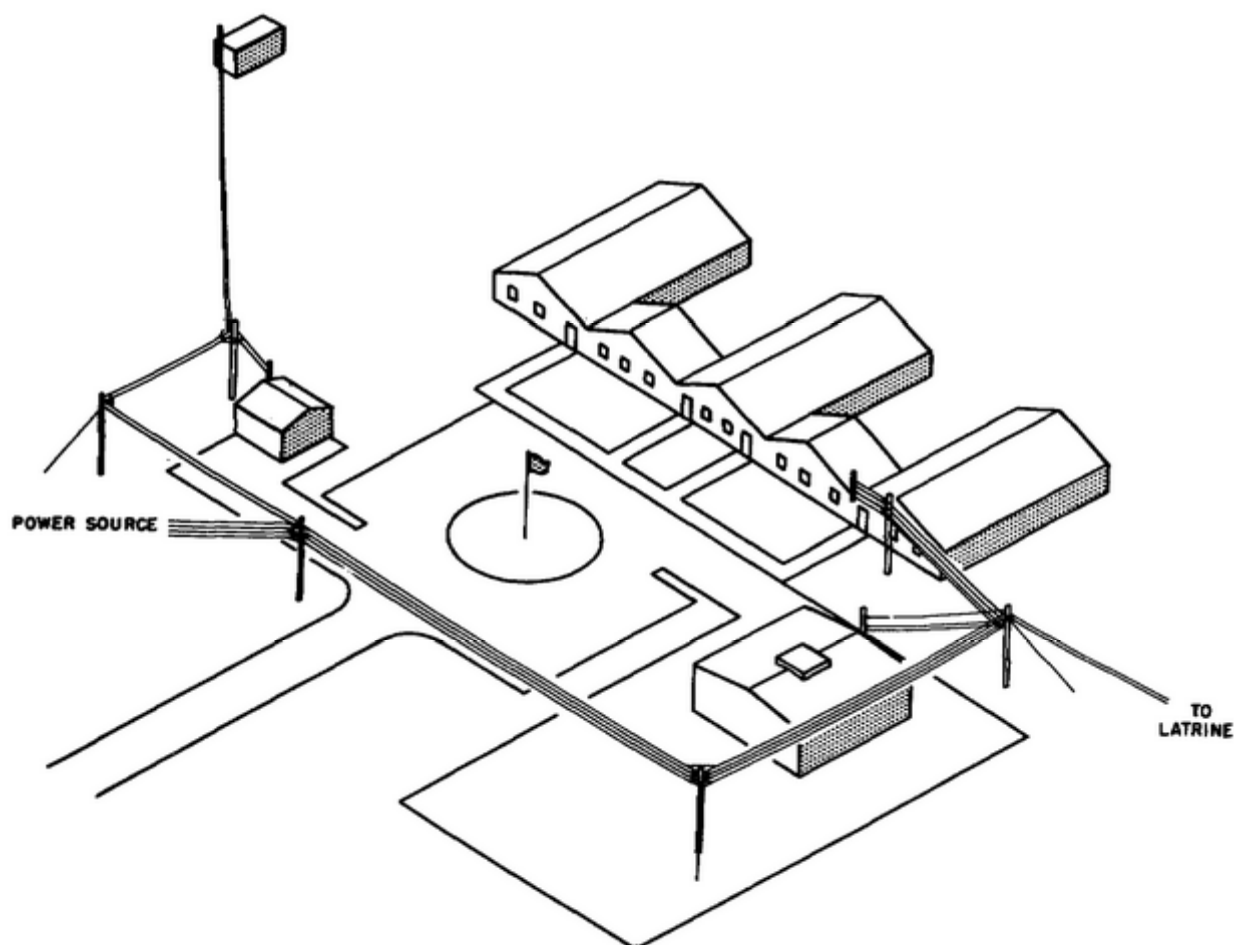


Figure 3-27. Typical electric distribution installation.

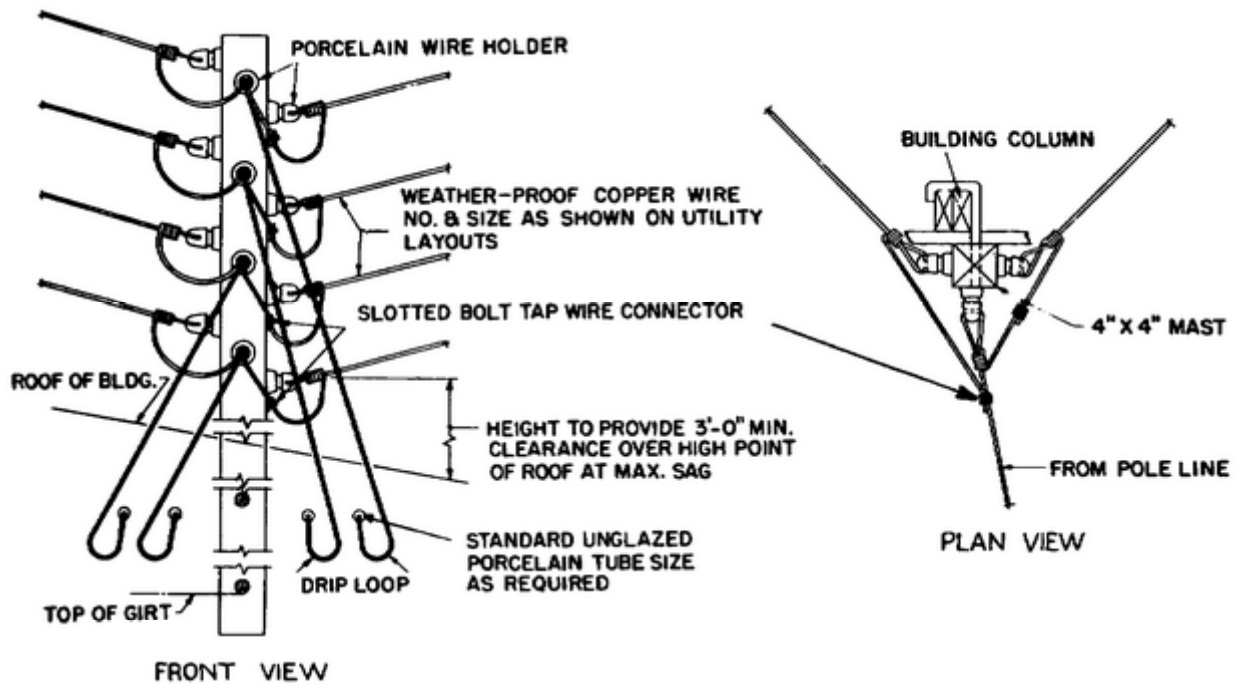
signed. Figure 3-29 illustrates typical detail drawings for secondary power distribution connections. The first detail indicates the method of connecting service drops at a mast on a building. The lower details show pole connection for both small and large angle turns. Figure 3-30 illustrates the type of detail drawing used for complex installations. This type of drawing gives you information such as size and class of pole, dimension of cross arm, type and size of wire, height of platform, and transformer wiring.

c. The pole line installation detail (fig 3-29) calls for a "class 5 pole." This refers to the USA

Standard Institute classification which classifies poles according to the load resistance 2 feet from the top. Table 3-6 lists the characteristics of four types of poles for the various classes and sizes. When installing distribution lines you would also be responsible for proper tensioning and you would use tables which list sag for various span lengths and conditions. Tables 3-7 and 3-8 are typical of the types used for this purpose. Information of this type may be found in TM 5-765, Electrical Power Transmission and Distribution. When the stringing temperature or span length does not correspond to a value listed, it will be necessary for you to interpolate between the nearest values given.

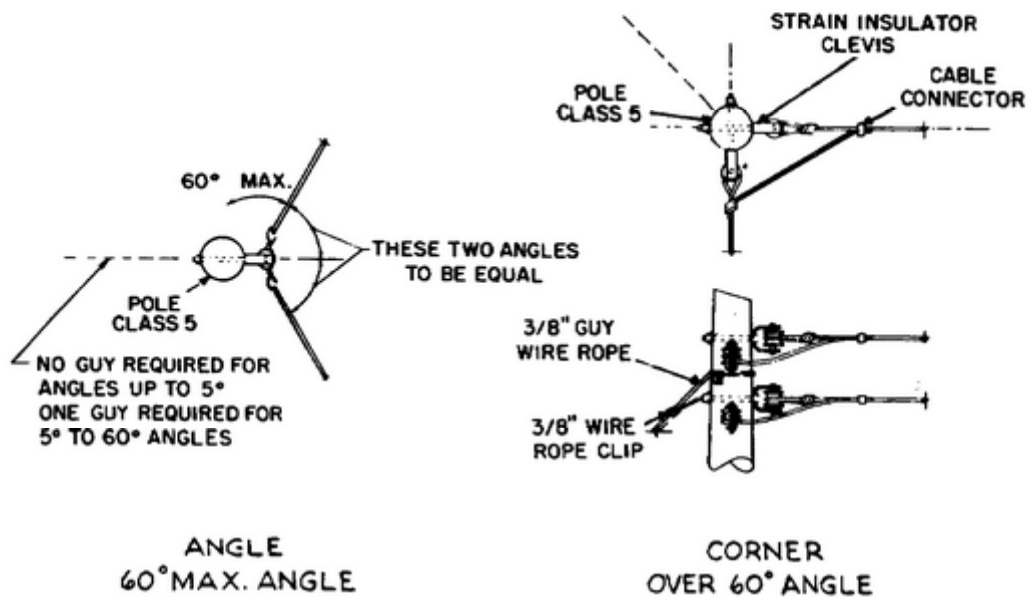
ELECTRICAL LOADS					
LOAD CTR	TYPE BUILDING	QTY	SERVICE	TOTAL CONNECTED LOADS-KW	TOTAL DEMAND LOADS-KW
E (EMER)	COVERED WALK				
	BKS 2	2	LIGHTING	25.56	25.56
	UTL 2	1			
	REC 2	3			
	LNK-SUP 2	1	POWER	88.82	88.82
	MESS 4	1			
	SPC A3	1			
	SURG-CMS	1	RECP. EST.	11.40	5.70
	EE-PH 2	1			
	XRY-LAB-DN	1			
	DSP 3	1	X-RAY	18.00	18.00
	ADM-A&D 1	1			
	MOQ 2	1			
	UTL 8	1	GRAND TOTAL	143.78	138.08
	FOQ 2	1			
	WRD 2	4			
	UTL 3	2	OVERALL DEMAND		62.13
	SURG-CMS	1			
	XRY-LB-DN	1	EMER. X-RAY	18.00	18.00
	DSP 3	1	EMER. LIGHTING	1.18	1.18

Figure 3-28. Typical tabulation of electrical loads.



BUILDING MAST INSTALLATION

SCALE NO. 7



TYPICAL POLE LINE INSTALLATION

NO SCALE

Figure 3-29. Typical electrical secondary distribution details.

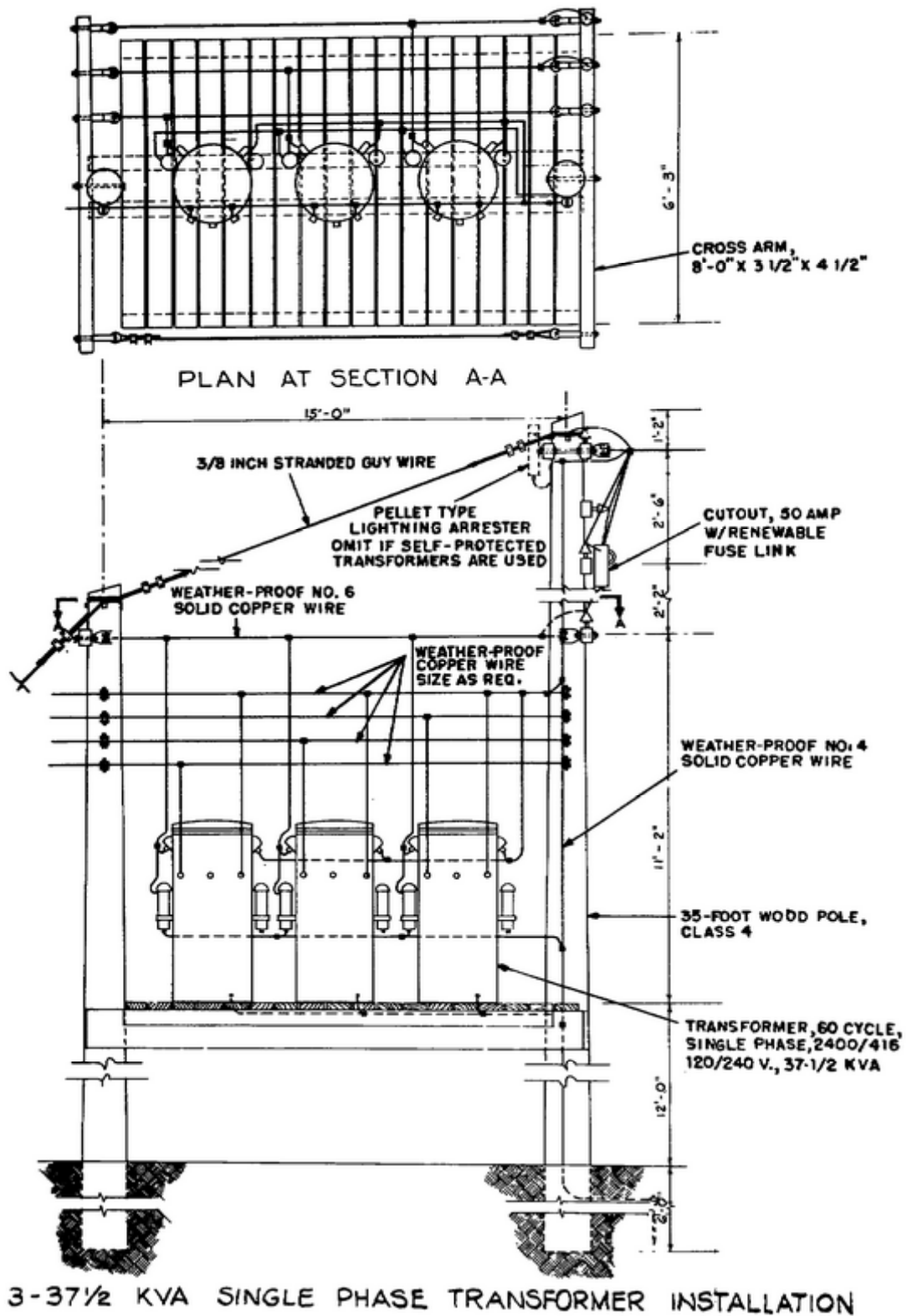


Figure 3-30. Transformer installation on a platform.

Table 3-6. Classification of Wood Poles

Pole length (feet)	USA class	Minimum circum- ference at top (inches)	Southern yellow pine		Chestnut		Western red cedar		Northern white cedar	
			Circum. 6 ft. from butt (inches)	Resisting moment (ft-lb)	Circum. 6 ft. from butt (inches)	Resisting moment (ft-lb)	Circum. 6 ft. from butt (inches)	Resisting moment (ft-lb)	Circum. 6 ft. from butt (inches)	Resisting moment (ft-lb)
25	1	27	34.5	80,200	37.0	80,200	38.0	81,000	43.5	78,200
25	2	25	32.5	67,000	34.5	65,000	35.5	66,100	41.0	65,400
25	3	23	30.0	52,700	32.5	54,300	33.0	53,100	38.0	52,100
25	4	21	28.0	42,860	30.0	42,700	30.5	41,900	35.5	42,500
25	5	19	26.0	34,320	28.0	34,720	28.5	34,200	32.5	32,680
25	6	17	24.0	26,990	25.5	26,230	26.0	25,970	30.0	25,640
25	7	15	22.0	20,800	24.0	21,870	24.5	21,730	28.0	20,840
30	1	27	37.5	102,900	40.0	101,200	41.0	101,700	47.5	101,800
30	2	25	35.0	83,700	37.5	83,500	38.5	84,300	44.5	83,700
30	3	23	32.5	67,000	35.0	67,850	35.5	66,100	41.5	67,800
30	4	21	30.0	52,700	32.5	54,300	33.0	53,100	38.5	54,200
30	5	19	28.0	42,860	30.0	42,700	30.5	41,900	35.5	42,500
30	6	17	26.0	34,320	28.0	34,720	28.5	34,200	33.0	34,100
30	7	15	24.0	26,990	26.0	27,820	26.5	27,500	30.5	26,930
35	1	27	40.0	124,900	42.5	121,400	43.5	121,600	50.5	122,300
35	2	25	37.5	102,900	40.0	101,200	41.0	101,700	47.5	101,800
35	3	23	35.0	83,700	37.5	83,500	38.0	81,000	44.0	80,900
35	4	21	32.0	64,000	34.5	65,000	35.0	63,350	41.0	65,400
35	5	19	30.0	52,700	32.0	51,900	32.5	50,700	38.0	52,100
35	6	17	27.5	40,600	30.0	42,700	30.5	41,900	35.0	40,700
35	7	15	25.5	32,380	27.5	32,920	28.0	32,410	32.5	32,600
40	1	27	42.0	144,600	45.0	144,100	46.0	143,800	53.5	145,500
40	2	25	39.5	120,300	42.5	121,400	43.5	121,600	50.0	118,700
40	3	23	37.0	98,900	39.5	97,500	40.5	98,100	46.5	95,500
40	4	21	34.0	76,700	36.5	77,000	37.5	77,900	43.5	78,200
40	5	19	31.5	60,900	34.0	62,200	34.5	60,700	40.0	60,800
40	6	17	29.0	47,600	31.5	49,400	32.0	48,400	37.0	48,100
40	7	15	27.0	38,400	29.5	40,600				
45	1	27	44.0	166,300	47.5	169,600	48.5	168,500	56.0	166,800
45	2	25	41.5	139,400	44.5	139,500	45.5	139,100	52.5	137,400
45	3	23	38.5	111,400	41.5	113,000	42.5	113,400	49.0	111,600
45	4	21	36.0	91,100	38.5	90,300	39.5	91,000	45.5	89,500
45	5	19	33.0	70,200	36.0	73,800	36.5	71,800	42.0	70,300
45	6	17	30.5	55,400	33.0	56,800				
45	7	15	28.5	45,200	31.0	47,200				
50	1	27	46.0	190,000	49.5	191,900	50.5	190,200	58.5	190,100
50	2	25	43.0	155,200	46.5	159,000	47.5	158,300	55.0	158,000
50	3	23	40.0	124,900	43.5	130,200	44.5	130,100	51.5	129,500
50	4	21	37.5	102,900	40.0	101,200	41.0	101,700	47.5	101,800
50	5	19	34.5	80,200	37.5	83,500	38.0	81,000	44.0	80,900
50	6	17	32.0	64,000	34.5	65,000				
50	7	15	29.5	50,100	32.0	51,900				
55	1	27	47.5	209,100	51.5	216,000	52.5	213,600	61.0	215,600
55	2	25	44.5	172,000	48.5	180,500	49.5	179,100	57.5	180,500
55	3	23	41.5	139,400	45.0	144,100	46.0	143,800	53.5	145,500
55	4	21	39.0	155,800	42.0	117,200	42.5	113,400	49.5	115,200
55	5	19	36.0	91,100	39.0	94,900	39.5	91,000	46.0	92,400
55	6	17	33.5	73,400	36.0	73,800				

Table 3-7. Typical Sag Table for Primary Distribution Wiring

Span (feet)	Sag for no. 6 AWG bare copper wire (inches)		
	Stringing temperature		
	30° F	60° F	90° F
50	2	3	3
60	3	4	5
70	4	6	7
80	6	7	9
90	8	9	11
100	9	12	14
110	12	14	17
120	14	17	20
130	16	20	23
140	18	23	26
150	21	26	30
160	24	30	34
170	27	34	39
180	31	38	44

Table 3-8. Sag Table for Secondary Distribution Wiring

Wire size (AWG)	String- ing temp	Sag of hard or medium-drawn, covered cop- per wire for different span lengths (inches).													
		Frigid and temperate zones							Tropical zone						
		100'	125'	150'	175'	200'	250'	300'	100'	125'	150'	175'	200'	250'	300'
8	30° F	15.5	23	36	—	—	—	—	8.5	14	22.5	31	—	—	—
	60° F	18	27	40	—	—	—	—	12	18	27	36	—	—	—
	90° F	21.5	31	44	—	—	—	—	15.5	22.5	32	41	—	—	—
6	30° F	8.5	14	22	31	—	—	—	6	9	14	19.5	26	—	—
	60° F	12	18	27	36	—	—	—	8	12	18	24	32	—	—
	90° F	15.5	22.5	32	40	—	—	—	11	16	22.5	29	38	—	—
4	30° F	8.5	14	21.5	31	43	—	—	6.5	9	14	19	26	—	—
	60° F	12	18	27	36	48	—	—	8	12	18	24	32	—	—
	90° F	17	22.5	32	41	54	—	—	11.5	16	22	30	38	—	—
2	30° F	3.5	14	21.5	23.5	30	53	89	6.5	9	14	17.5	21	28	45
	60° F	12	18	27	30	36	60	96	8	12	18	22	26	34	52
	90° F	17	22.5	32	35	42	67	103	11.5	16	22	27	32	41	60
1	30° F	8.5	13.5	21	23	27	44	72	5.5	9	13.5	16.5	19	26	38
	60° F	12	18	26	29	33	52	80	8	12	18	21	24	31	45
	90° F	15.5	22.5	31	34	39	59	87	11.5	16	23	26	30	38	53
1/0	30° F	8.5	13.5	20.5	22.5	26	42	66	5.5	9	14	16.5	18	24.5	34
	60° F	12	18	26	28	32	49	72	8	12	18	21	23	30	41
	90° F	15.5	22.5	31	34	38	56	82	11.5	16.5	23	27	28	36	47
2/0	30° F	8.5	13.5	20	22.5	25	38	57	5.5	9	13.5	16	17.5	23	31
	60° F	12	18	25	28	31	46	66	8	12	18	20	22	28	37
	90° F	16	22.5	30	34	38	53	73	11.5	16	23	25	28	35	45
4/0	30° F	8.5	13.5	18.5	21	24.5	31	43	5.5	8.5	13.5	16	16.5	20.5	27
	60° F	12	18	24	27	30	38	50	8	12	18	19	21	25	32
	90° F	16	22.5	29	33	36	46	59	11.5	16	23	24.5	26	31	39

REVIEW QUESTION 7

The term "power system" is generally considered to be a combination of what two sections? (para 3-16)

REVIEW QUESTION 8

Power is conveyed through electric wiring from the generating source to the using unit. The size of the wire depends on the current-carrying requirements; the larger the current, the larger the wire. The sizes of wire are listed by American Wire Gauge (AWG) numbers. What size bare stranded copper wire would a utility drawing specify if a resistance of .12617 ohm per 1,000 feet at 20 degrees C, or a current carrying capacity of 186 amperes, was required? (para 3-18) (table 3-4)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 7

The power system is generally considered to be a combination of two sections - the transmission system and the distribution system. (para 3-16)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 8

Using table 3-4, a bare stranded copper wire with a resistance of .12617 ohm per 1,000 feet at 20 degrees C and a current capacity of 186 amps is an AWG size #1. (para 3-18) (table 3-4)

Section V. Electrical Wiring

3-20. DEFINITION

The electrical wiring system in a building is the installation which distributes electrical energy. It is frequently referred to as the "interior wiring system" to distinguish it from the "electric distribution system" which includes outside power lines and equipment for multibuilding installations.

3-21. NOMENCLATURE

The nomenclature of a building wiring system is divided into two principal parts according to function as follows:

a. Building Feeders and Subfeeders. A building feeder is a set of conductors supplying electricity to the building. A subfeeder is an extension of the feeder through a cutout, or switch, from one interior distribution center to another without branch circuits between.

b. Branch or Branch Circuits. A branch circuit is a set of conductors, feeding through an automatic cutout, or fuse, and supplying one or more energy-consuming devices such as lights or motors.

3-22. MATERIALS AND FITTINGS

A variety of materials and fittings are used in the installation of electrical wiring. Some common items you use in theater of operations type construction are described in the following paragraphs.

a. Conductors. A conductor is any wire bar, or ribbon, with or without insulation. It is usually made of copper because of the good electrical characteristics of that metal. The smallest size wire permitted for use in interior wiring systems is 14 AWG. The determination of the wire size to be used in circuits is dependent on the voltage drop coincident with each size. The size of the conductor used as feeder to each circuit is also based on voltage drop. You would select the wire size so that the voltage drop from the branch circuit supply to the outlets will not be more than 3 percent. Table 3-9, which is based on an allowable 3-percent voltage drop, lists the wire sizes required for various distances between supply and load, at different load currents. Table 3-9 also lists the service-wire requirements and capacities. The minimum size for service-wire installation shall not be smaller than the conductors of a branch circuit and in no case smaller than No. 12. Service-wires must not only meet the voltage-drop requirements but also be inherently strong enough to support their own weight, plus any additional loading caused by nature (ice, branches, etc.). Symbols are used on electrical plans to show the routing and interconnection of wiring. The symbols that you will most frequently encounter are shown in figure 3-31. Wiring may be divided into four classes according to type of installation or the materials used.

(1) Expedient wiring. There are many applications where electrical wiring installations are needed for temporary use. One example is a forward area installation. A complete installation including knobs, tubes, cleats, and damage protection would require

Table 3-9. Minimum Wire Sizes

Wire size for 120-volt single phase circuit															
Load (amps)	Minimum wire size (AWG)	Service wire size (AWG)	Wire size (AWG)												
			Distance one way from supply to load (ft.)												
			50	75	100	125	150	175	200	250	300	350	400	450	500
15	14	10	14	12	10	8	8	6	6	6	4	4	4		
20	14	10	12	10	8	8	6	6	6	4	4	2	2	2	2
25	12	8	10	8	8	6	6	4	4	4	2	2	2	1	1
30	12	8	10	8	6	6	4	4	4	2	2	1	1	0	0
35	12	6	8	6	6	4	4	4	2	2	1	1	0	0	2/0
40	10	6	8	6	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	2/0
45	10	6	8	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	2/0	3/0
50	10	6	8	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	3/0
55	8	4	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	3/0	4/0
60	8	4	6	4	4	2	2	1	1	0	2/0	3/0	3/0	4/0	4/0
65	8	4	6	4	4	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0	
70	8	4	6	4	2	2	1	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0	
75	6	4	6	4	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0		
80	6	4	6	4	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0		
85	6	4	4	4	2	1	1	0	2/0	3/0	3/0	4/0			
90	6	2	4	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0			
95	6	2	4	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0				
100	4	2	4	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0				

too much time and would be impractical. Consequently, expedient wiring used for temporary buildings and forward areas does not require the mounting and protective devices used in permanent installations. Generally, the wires are attached to building members with nails, and pigtail sockets are used for outlets. Soldering is omitted and friction tape is used as a protective covering on the connections. Fixture drops, preferably pigtail sockets, are installed by tapping their leads to wires and then taping the taps. The sockets are supported by the tap wires.

(2) Open wiring. Open wiring is the type most often used in theater of operation construction because of economy of materials and ease of making additions or alterations. Wiring is supported and separated on porcelain knobs, cleats, and tubes or encased in a nonmetallic flexible casing called loom. Wiring exposed to possible mechanical damage is protected by running boards or railings. Taps or splices are supported.

(3) Armored cable wiring. Armored cable, commonly called BX, provides mechanical damage protection without additional protective

provisions. All connections and splices are made within boxes, usually with wire nuts. Cables are run through holes in building members or supported by staples or straps. Nonmetallic sheathed cable is sometimes used for interior wiring also. Connections and supports are similar to armored cable wiring.

(4) Conduit wiring. Rigid or thin-wall conduit wiring provides the highest-quality, and most expensive installation. Rigid or thin-wall pipe is used to support and protect the conductors. Splices and taps are made at junction boxes or outlet boxes. Very little additional support or mechanical damage protection is required beyond that provided by the conduit.

b. Fixtures. The various switches and outlets, such as lighting fixtures and receptacles, are shown by symbols on interior wiring pins. The most frequently encountered symbols are shown in figure 332.

c. Fuse Boxes and Circuit Breakers. Each branch circuit is connected to some protective device, usually at the point where

Table 3-9. Continued.

Wire size for 220-volt three phase circuits														
	Minimum wire size (AWG)	Service wire size (AWG)	Distance one way from supply to load (ft.)											
			100	150	200	250	300	350	400	500	600	700	800	1000
15	14	12	14	12	10	8	8	8	6	6	6	4	4	2
20	14	10	12	10	8	8	6	6	6	4	4	4	2	2
25	12	8	10	8	8	6	6	6	4	4	2	2	2	1
30	12	8	10	8	6	6	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0
35	12	8	10	8	6	6	4	4	4	2	2	1	1	0
40	10	6	8	6	6	4	4	4	2	1	1	1	0	2/0
45	10	6	8	6	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	0	2/0
50	10	6	8	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0
55	8	6	8	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0
60	8	6	6	6	4	2	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0
65	8	4	6	4	4	2	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0
70	8	4	6	4	4	2	2	1	1	0	2/0	3/0	3/0	4/0
75	6	4	6	4	2	2	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0
80	6	4	6	4	2	2	1	1	0	2/0	3/0	3/0	4/0	4/0
85	6	4	6	4	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0	
90	6	4	6	4	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0	
95	6	4	6	4	2	1	1	0	2/0	3/0	3/0	4/0		
100	4	2	4	2	2	1	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0		
125	4	2	4	2	1	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0				
150	2	2	2	2	0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0					
175	2	1	2	1	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0					
200	1	0	1	0	2/0	3/0	4/0	4/0						
225	0	0	0	0	2/0	3/0	4/0							
250	2/0	2/0	2/0	2/0	3/0	4/0								
275	3/0	3/0	3/0	3/0	3/0	4/0								
300	3/0	3/0	3/0	3/0	4/0									
325	4/0	4/0	4/0	4/0										

electrical service enters the building. Subfeeders and additional protective devices may be used for devices such as motors.

(1) **Fuses.** The device for automatically opening a circuit when the current rises beyond the safety limit is technically called a cutout, but more commonly called a fuse. All circuits and electrical apparatus must be protected from short circuits or dangerous overcurrent conditions through correctly rated fuses. The cartridge type fuse is used for current rating above 30 amperes in interior wiring systems. The plug or screw type fuse is satisfactory for incandescent lighting or heating appliance circuits. On branch circuits, wherever motors are connected, time-lag fuses should be used instead of the standard plug or cartridge type fuse. These fuses have self-compensating elements which maintain and

hold the circuit in line during a momentary heavy ampere drain, yet cut out the circuit under short-circuit conditions. As you know, the heavy ampere demand normally occurs in motor circuits when the motor is started.

(2) **Fuse boxes.** As a general rule the fusing of circuits is concentrated at centrally located fuse or distribution panel. These panel are normally located at the service-entrance switch in small buildings or installed in several power centers in large buildings. The number of service centers or fuse boxes in the latter case would be determined by the connected power load.

(3) **Circuit breakers.** A circuit breaker is a protective switching device designed to open a current-carrying circuit under over-






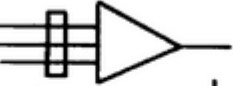
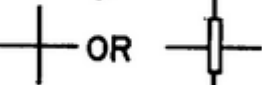
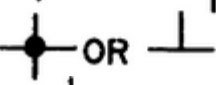
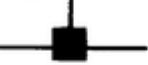


ITEM	SYMBOL
WIRING CONCEALED IN CEILING OR WALL	
WIRING CONCEALED IN FLOOR	
EXPOSED BRANCH CIRCUIT	
BRANCH CIRCUIT HOME RUN TO PANEL BOARD (NO. OF ARROWS EQUALS NO. OF CIRCUITS, DESIGNATION IDENTIFIES DESIGNATION AT PANEL)	
THREE OR MORE WIRES (NO. OF CROSS LINES EQUALS NO. OF CONDUCTORS TWO CONDUCTORS INDICATED IF NOT OTHERWISE NOTED)	
INCOMING SERVICE LINES	
CROSSED CONDUCTORS, NOT CONNECTED	
SPLICE OR SOLDERED CONNECTION	
CABLED CONNECTOR (SOLDERLESS)	
WIRE TURNED UP	
WIRE TURNED DOWN	

Figure 3-31. Line symbols for electrical wiring.


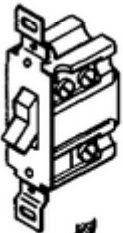
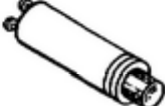

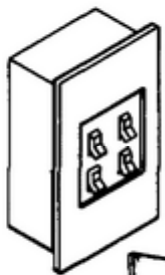
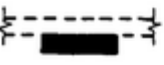
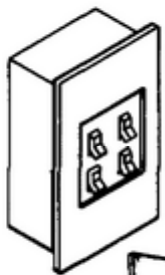

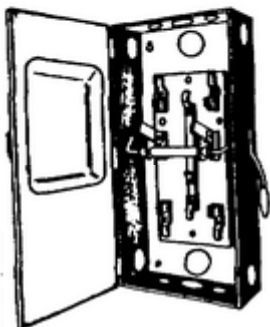




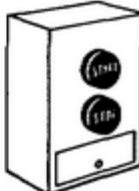






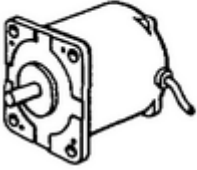

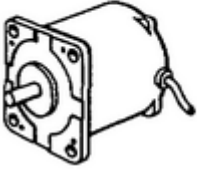

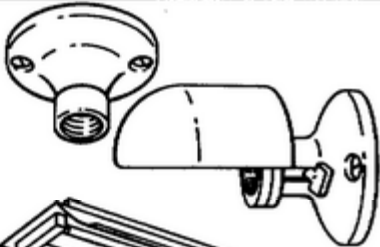








ITEM	SYMBOL	ILLUSTRATION
SWITCHES -		
SINGLE POLE SWITCH	S	
DOUBLE POLE SWITCH	S ₂	
THREE WAY SWITCH	S ₃	
SWITCH AND PILOT LAMP	S _P	
CEILING PULL SWITCH	(S)	
PANEL BOARDS AND RELATED EQUIPMENT		
PANEL BOARD AND CABINET		
SWITCHBOARD, CONTROL STATION OR SUBSTATION		
SERVICE SWITCH OR CIRCUIT BREAKER	 OR  OR 	
EXTERNALLY OPERATED DISCONNECT SWITCH		
MOTOR CONTROLLER	 OR 	
MISCELLANEOUS -		
TELEPHONE		
THERMOSTAT		
MOTOR		

Figure 3-32. Symbols for electrical fixtures and controls.

ITEM	SYMBOL	ILLUSTRATION
LIGHTING OUTLETS* - CEILING		
WALL		
FLUORESCENT FIXTURE		
CONTINUOUS ROW FLUORESCENT FIXTURE		
BARE LAMP FLUORESCENT STRIP		



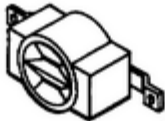

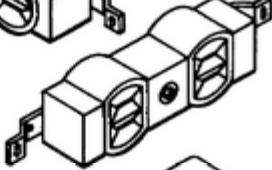


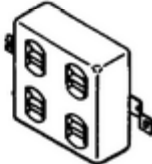


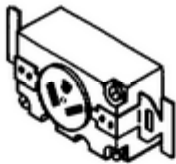




* LETTERS ADDED TO SYMBOLS INDICATE SPECIAL TYPE OR USAGE

J- JUNCTION BOX

R- RECESSED

L- LOW VOLTAGE

X- EXIT LIGHT

RECEPTACLE OUTLETS** - SINGLE OUTLET	 OR 	
DUPLEX OUTLET		
QUADRUPLEX OUTLET	 OR 	
SPECIAL PURPOSE OUTLET	 OR 	
20-AMP, 250- VOLT OUTLET		
SINGLE FLOOR OUTLET (BOX AROUND ANY OF ABOVE INDICATES FLOOR OUTLET OF SAME TYPE)	 OR 	

** LETTER G NEXT TO SYMBOL INDICATES GROUNDING TYPE

Figure 3-32. Continued.

load, high or low voltage, or short-circuit conditions and is sometimes substituted for the entrance switch in small building electrical installations. No fuses are used in the circuit breaker. The breaker is generally operated automatically although manual operation is provided for. As a rule, no detailed wiring diagram for a circuit breaker is shown on construction prints since such diagrams are to be found on the outside of the circuit breaker box cover.

3-23. ELECTRICAL PLANS

a. Electrical plans show what items are to be installed, their approximate location, and the circuits to which they are to be connected. A typical electrical plan for a post exchange is shown in figure 3-33. The plan shows that the incoming service consists of three No. 8 wires and that two circuit-breaker panels are to be installed. Starting at the upper left, the plan shows that nine ceiling lighting outlets and two duplex wall outlets are to be installed in the bulk storage area. The arrow designated "B2" indicates that these outlets are to be connected to circuit 2 of circuit-breaker panel B. Note that three wires are indicated from this point to the double home-run arrows designated "B1, B2." These are the hot wire from the bulk storage area to circuit 2 of panel B, the hot wire from the administration area to circuit 1 of panel B, and a common neutral. From the double arrowhead, these wires are run to the circuit breaker panel without additional connections. This run is shown at the left side of figure 3-34, which is typical of the ceiling wiring diagrams provided for open wiring of medium or extreme complexity. Note

that the entire installation is not shown in figure 3-34. The diagram shows the splices, support, and insulator arrangements used. Note that this is a physical drawing rather than symbolic one, so each line represents a single wire rather than a pair of conductors as in the plan. A note calls out a circuit breaker installation detail at the point where the wires are down to the circuit-breaker panel, and the arrowheads on the leader from the note show the direction from which the circuit breaker installation detail is drawn. The circuit breaker panel installation detail (figure 3-35) shows the installation arrangement for the circuit breakers, including grounding, splices, and connections to the incoming service. Note that the circuit breaker panels are placed 5 feet, 6 inches from the floor line. You can also see that a 3/4-inch pipe driven 8 feet into the ground is used for grounding the No. 8 ground wire.

b. In some installations alternate outlets are connected to different circuits so that half the lighting may be turned on at one time and only part of the service will be out if a circuit breaker is tripped. For these plans, the circuit identification (A1, B1, etc.) is noted alongside each fixture.

c. Wiring plans are not usually provided for the fixtures themselves. If the connections are not obvious, diagrams are normally supplied with the device. A three-way switch circuit, which enables the control of a single outlet from two locations, is shown in figure 3-36. On an electrical plan you will find the three-way switch is indicated by the symbol S3.

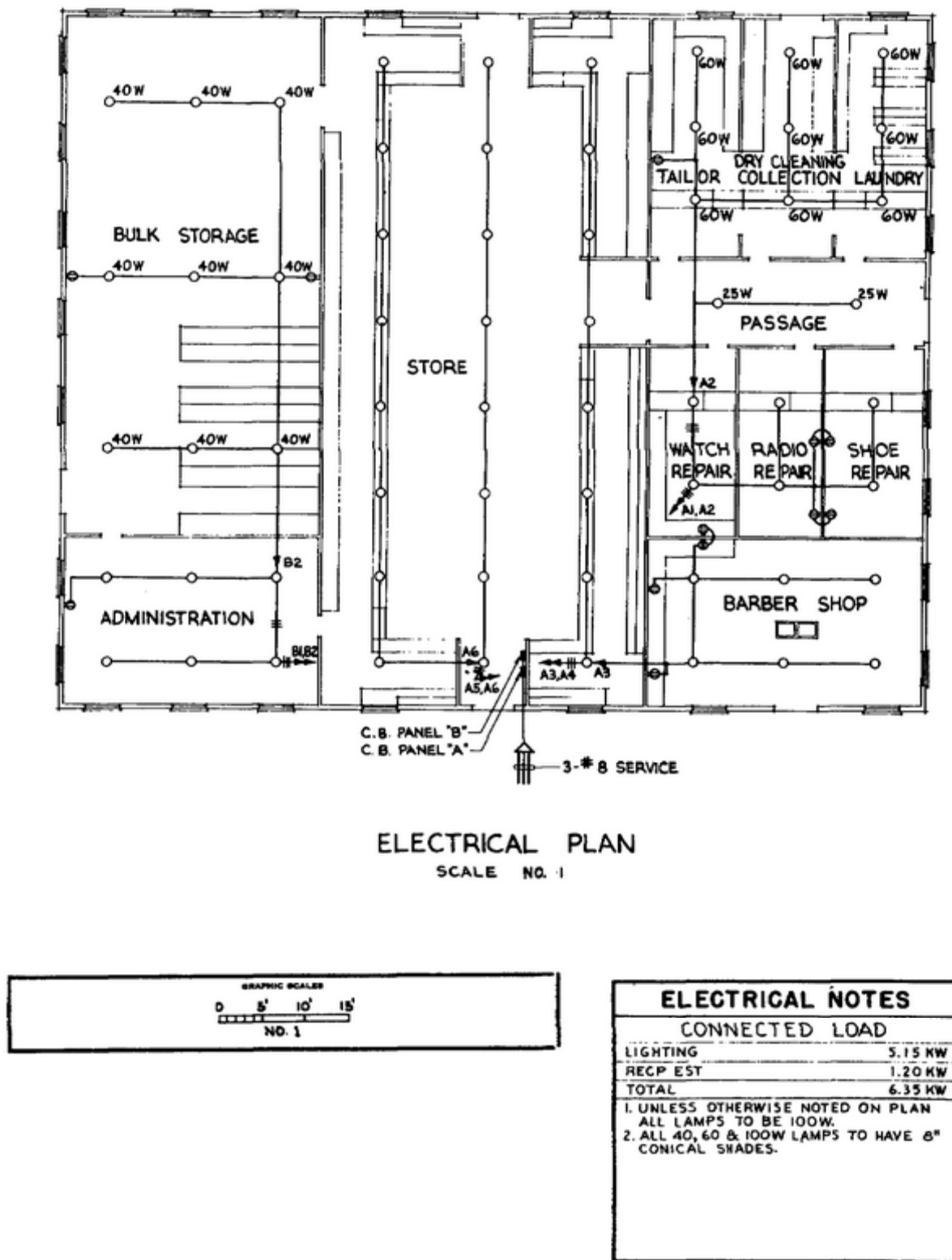
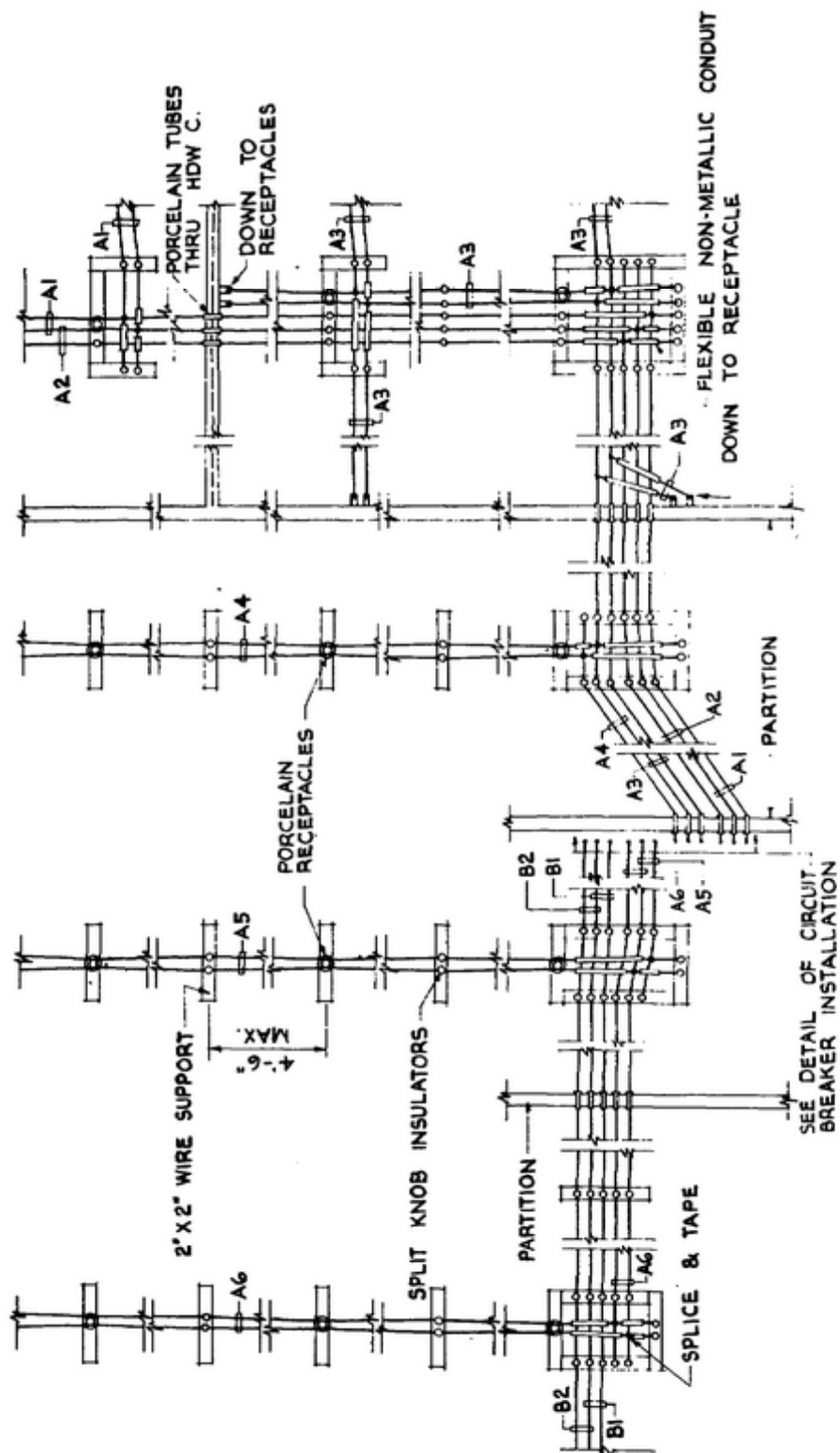


Figure 3-33. Typical electrical plan.



NO SCALE

Figure 3-34. Typical ceiling wiring diagram.

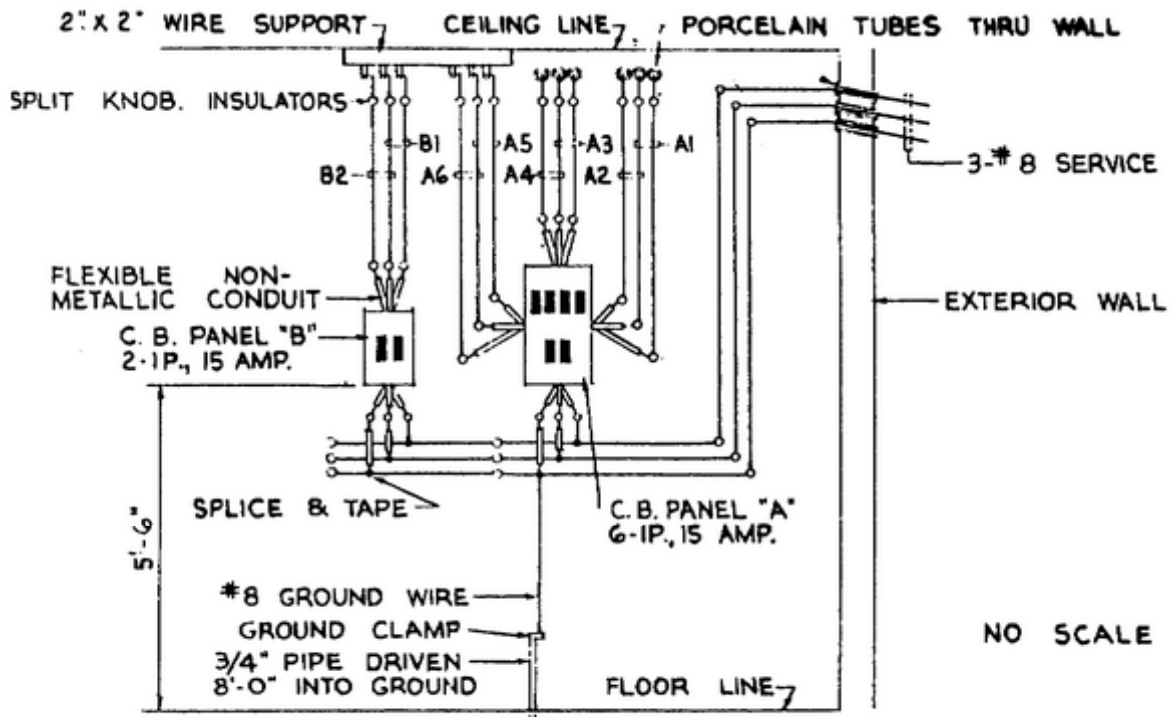


Figure 3-35. Typical circuit breaker panel installation detail.

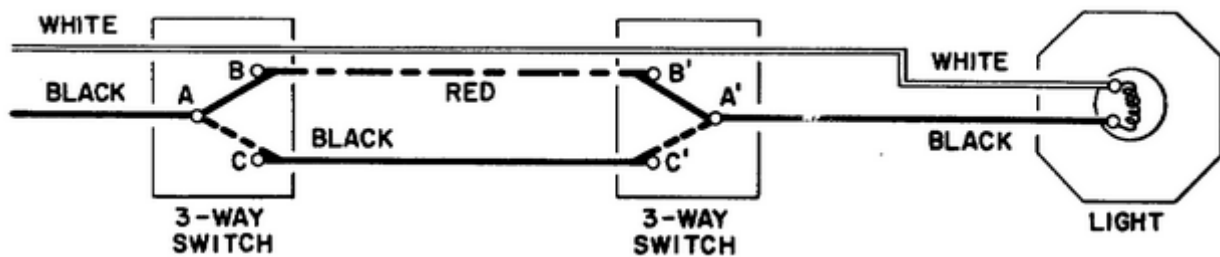


Figure 3-36. Wiring diagram for a three-way switch.

REVIEW QUESTION 9

The nomenclature of a building wiring system is divided into two principal parts according to function as follows: (a) building feeders and subfeeders and (b) branches or branch circuits. Define these terms. (para 3-21, a, b)

REVIEW QUESTION 10

What information do electrical plans show? (para 3-23, a)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 9

A building feeder is a set of conductors supplying electricity to the building. A subfeeder is an extension of the feeder through a cutout, or switch, from one interior distribution center to another without branch circuits between. A branch circuit is a set of conductors, feeding through an automatic cutout, or fuse, and supplying one or more energy-consuming devices such as lights or motors. (para 3-21, **a, b**)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 10

Electrical plans show what items are to be installed, their approximate location, and the circuits to which they are to be connected. (para 3-23, **a**)

LESSON 3 SELF TEST EXERCISES

Upon completion of the text assignment, solve the following self test exercises based on lesson objectives.

NOTE: The following exercises are study aids. References to related information in the reading material are shown in parentheses after each question. Write your answer in the space provided below each question. When you have finished answering all the questions for this lesson, compare your answers with those given for this lesson in the back of the booklet. Review the lesson as necessary.

Objective 1. WATER SUPPLY AND DISTRIBUTION. Discuss the elements of a typical water supply waste and distribution system used in military field installations. (Answer questions 1 through 3.)

1. Refer to figure 3-1. If you were interested in looking at specific details of the filter bed, which drawing number would you refer to? (para 3-2)(fig 3-1)
2. A water distribution plan will show the general location and size of the pipes along with valves, sumps, water tanks, and other fixtures. Figure 3-2 is an example of one such distribution plan. What size pipe, in inches, is used to transport the water from the supply system to the water tank? (para 3-3) (fig 3-2)
3. Referring again to figure 3-2, approximately how many feet of 2-inch pipe are needed to connect the utility building-8 with the main distribution line? (para 3-3) (fig 3-2)

Objective 2. PLUMBING SYMBOLS. Identify the symbols used on plumbing plans for piping, fittings, valves, and fixtures for water distribution and waste disposal. (Answer questions 4 through 6.)

4. Different symbols and line conventions are used to indicate the various plumbing features on a plumbing plan. How are the types and locations of acid- and/or water-carrying pipes indicated? (para 3-6,a)
5. Pipe fittings are represented by symbols which combine lines and various geometrical shapes. Which of the figures shown represents a concentric reducer fitting? (para 3-6, b) (fig 3-6)



a



b

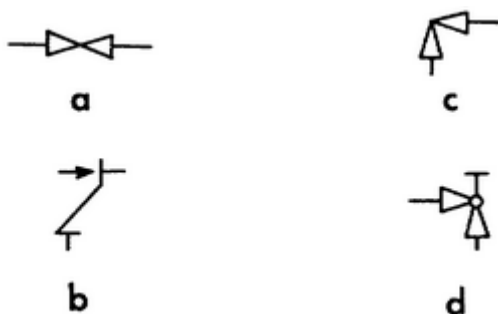


c



d

6. Lines and geometrical shapes are used in combination to represent the types of valves and the manner in which they are installed. Which of the symbols shown below would be used on an elevation drawing to represent an angled gate valve? (para 3-6, c) (fig 3-7)

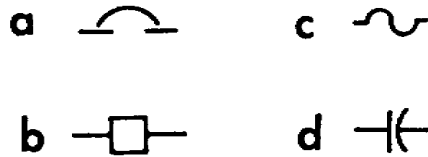


Objective 3. SEWERAGE SYSTEM PLANS. Describe and interpret simple plumbing and sewerage system plans. (Answer questions 7 through 10.)

7. In order to adequately describe the typical sewerage system, both a plan view and profile view are needed. The horizontal and vertical dimensions will be given by the plan view and profile view, respectively. Figure 3-18 is a plan view of a sewerage system comprised of a septic tank, dosing tank, distribution box, and subsurface and filter. What is the recommended spacing, in feet, between the lines and drains of the sand filter? (para 3-14, b) (fig 3-18)
8. It should be emphasized that only horizontal distances are given in a plan view. Since the pipes shown in figure 3-18 slope downward into the ground, you cannot determine the actual length of the pipes without using the plan view and the profile view in conjunction. What is the horizontal distance, in feet, between manhole No. 2 and the inlet of the septic tank? (para 3-14, c) (fig 3-18)
9. Figure 3-23 is the profile view of the sewerage system shown in the plan view of figure 3-18. Note that the profile is taken along the path of sewerage flow. In other words, the main sewer line and the outfall sewer line are actually perpendicular to each other, whereas the profile view shows them as if they were both in the same plane. Referring to figure 3-23, what is the vertical distance, in feet, between manhole No. 2 and the inlet of the septic tank? (para 3-14, c) (fig 3-23)
10. Note that the floors of the buildings in figure 3-23 are located along the elevation line marked "200.0." Which of the following is a correct statement regarding this elevation line? (para 3-14,c) (fig 3-23)
- a. 200 feet is the base mode factor.
 - b. Depth of sewerage system is 200 feet.
 - c. Actual elevation of floors is 200 feet.
 - d. 200 feet is a convenient reference point.

Objective 4. ELECTRICAL DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM. Explain power transmission and distribution systems as used in military installations. (Answer questions 11 through 13.)

11. An electric power distribution system, consisting of primary distribution lines, service transformer banks, and secondary lines, is used to deliver power from the power plant or substation to the using premises. Symbolic conventions are used to indicate the general layout, units, related equipment, and fixtures to be installed. Which of the symbols shown below represents a fuse? (para 3-17) (fig 3-25)



12. The detail drawing of figure 3-30 specifies the type and size of wire to be used and the method of connection. What method of connection for the primary and secondary wires of the transformers is represented by the rectangular line symbol? (para 3-18) (fig A-10, app A)
13. Refer again to figure 3-30. Which of the following statements is correct? (para 3-19,b) (fig 8-30)
- a. Transformers are 40 cycle.
 - b. 20-amp fuse cutout is required.
 - c. Guy wire is 3/4 inch in diameter.
 - d. Lightning arrester is pellet type.

Objective 5. INTERIOR WIRING. Identify the components of an interior wiring system and the symbols used for them on wiring diagrams. (Answer questions 14 through 16.)

14. What is the difference between an "interior wiring system" and an "electrical distribution system"? (para 3-20)
15. A building wiring system is divided into two principal parts according to function. What are these parts? (para 3-21,a,b)
16. The routing and interconnection of wiring as well as electrical fixtures and controls are represented by symbols on electrical plans. Which of the symbols shown below represents a single floor outlet? (para 3-22,b) (fig 3-22)



Objective 6. ELECTRICAL PLANS. Describe and interpret simple electrical plans. (Answer questions 17 through 20.)

17. Electrical plans show the items to be installed, their approximate location, and the circuits to which they are connected. Looking at the electrical plan of figure 3-33, how many lines make up the incoming service? (para 3-23,a) (fig 3-33)
18. By adding up the individual power requirements for the items connected to any one circuit, you can determine the total load for that circuit. What is the total load, expressed in watts, connected to circuit A4 of figure 3-33? (para 3-23,a) (fig 3-33)
19. Notice that two circuit breaker panels are shown in figure 3-33. The circuit breakers are installed as protective devices against overload or short-circuit conditions. How many circuits are connected to circuit breaker panel "A"? (para 3-23,a) (fig 3-33)
20. Referring again to figure 3-33, note the double arrowhead marked "B1, B2." How many connections are made between this point and the circuit breaker connection? (para 3-27,a) (fig 3-31, 3-33)

LESSON 4

HEATING, AIR-CONDITIONING, AND REFRIGERATION DRAWINGS

TEXT ASSIGNMENTAttached Memorandum.

LESSON OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this lesson of Heating, Air-Conditioning, and Refrigeration Drawings, you should be able to accomplish the following in the indicated topic areas:

1. **Elements of Heating Systems.** List the basic elements of hot-water and warm-air heating systems and explain their functions.
2. **Heating Element Symbols.** Identify the graphic symbols used for heating system elements and interpret the heating elements symbols used on plumbing or heating system plans.
3. **Air-Conditioning System Units.** Describe the units which make up an air-conditioning system and how they function.
4. **Air-Conditioning System Symbols.** Identify common symbols for air-conditioning system components and interpret the meaning of these symbols as used on plans to indicate air-conditioning.
5. **Refrigeration Elements Symbols.** Identify symbols used for elements of refrigerated structures and interpret the representation of refrigeration systems on drawings.

ATTACHED MEMORANDUM

Section I. Heating

4-1. INTRODUCTION

a. Heating is the operation of a system to transmit heat from a point of generation to the place or places of use. To read the plan of a heating system you should be familiar with the basic elements of heating systems and their graphic representation. However, the design of heating installations for buildings is one of the more complex fields of construction and you will find that the variations of the basic type of heating systems are numerous.

b. Heating systems are classified according to the medium used to carry heat from the point of

penetration to the point of use. Steam or hot-water and warm-air systems are the classes in common use. Hot-water heating is used extensively. Warm-air heating is probably the most familiar to you because it is used in almost all semi-permanent construction and most barracks.

c. Because of the variations, any discussion of heating systems must be limited. For the same reason, you will find a legend on heating prints covering the symbols used thereon. You should learn the symbols for some of the more common types of piping, fittings, traps, valves, heat power apparatus, and fluid power diagram symbols. Some of

the symbols you should be familiar with are presented in figures 4-1 through 4-5. Additional symbols are listed in appendix A.

4-2. HOT-WATER HEATING SYSTEMS

Circulation of water which has been heated at a central source through pipes to radiators or convectors and back to the heating unit describes a hot-water heating system. Usually, you will find that a pump is used to keep the water circulating; gravity systems are seldom used. There are two classes of hot-water systems: the one-pipe system and the two-pipe system.

a. One-Pipe System. The one-pipe system (fig 4-6) is the simplest type of hot water installation.

Hot water circulates through a single main and through each radiator in turn. You can see that the water reaching the last radiator will be cooler than the water in the first. In order to obtain the same amount of heat from each radiator in a one-pipe system, each radiator must be larger than the one before it with the last radiator being the largest of all. It is apparent that the one-pipe system is adequate for very small installations only.

b. Two-Pipe System. You will find that the disadvantages of the one-pipe system are largely offset in a two-pipe system. Figure 4-7 shows a two-pipe hot-water heating system. You can see that the hot water from the heater unit goes directly to the five radiators via the main, tees, and elbows. The cooler water leaving the radiators goes back to the

AIR-RELIEF LINE	— — — — —
BOILER BLOW OFF	— — — — —
COMPRESSED AIR	— — — — — A — — — — —
CONDENSATE OR VACUUM PUMP DISCHARGE	— O — — O — — O — —
FEEDWATER PUMP DISCHARGE	— OO — — OO — — OO — —
FUEL-OIL FLOW	— — — — — FOF — — — — —
FUEL-OIL RETURN	— — — — — FOR — — — — —
FUEL-OIL TANK VENT	— — — — — FOV — — — — —
HIGH-PRESSURE RETURN	— # — — # — — # — —
HIGH-PRESSURE STEAM	— # — — # — — # — —
HOT-WATER HEATING RETURN	— — — — —
HOT-WATER HEATING SUPPLY	— — — — —
LOW-PRESSURE RETURN	— — — — —
LOW-PRESSURE STEAM	— — — — —
MAKE-UP WATER	— — — — —
MEDIUM PRESSURE RETURN	— + — — + — — + — —
MEDIUM PRESSURE STEAM	— + — — + — — + — —

Figure 4-1. Heating piping symbols.


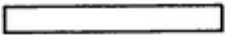



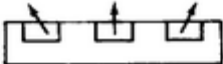

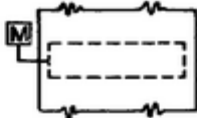






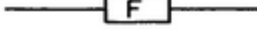

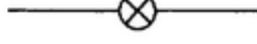
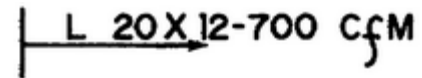
HEAT EXCHANGER	
HEAT TRANSFER SURFACE, PLAN	
PUMP	
THERMOMETER	
THERMOSTAT	
UNIT HEATER (CENTRIFUGAL FAN), PLAN	
UNIT HEATER (PROPELLER), PLAN	
AUTOMATIC DAMPERS	
DUCT SECTION (EXHAUST OR RETURN)	 ← (E OR R 20 X 12)
DUCT SECTION (SUPPLY)	 ← (S 20 X 12)
MOTOR OPERATED VALVE	
RELIEF VALVE (PRESSURE OR VACUUM)	
BOILER RETURN TRAP	
BLAST THERMOSTATIC TRAP	
FLOAT TRAP	
FLOAT AND THERMOSTATIC TRAP	
THERMOSTATIC TRAP	

Figure 4-2. Heating symbols.

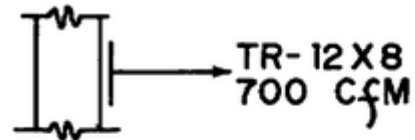
LOUVER OPENING



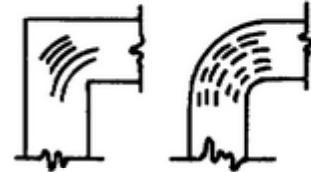
SUPPLY OUTLET CEILING
(INDICATE TYPE)



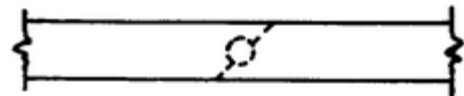
SUPPLY OUTLET WALL
(INDICATE TYPE)



VANES



VOLUME DAMPER



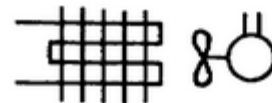
CAPILLARY TUBE



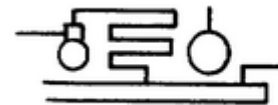
COMPRESSOR



CONDENSER, AIR COOLED,
FINNED, FORCED AIR



CONDENSING UNIT,
AIR COOLED



CONDENSING UNIT,
WATER COOLED

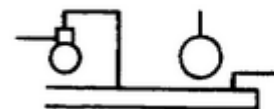
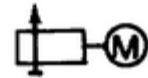


Figure 4-3 Ventilating symbols.

ROTARY COMPRESSOR



RECIPROCATING COMPRESSOR

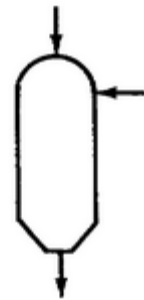


CENTRIFUGAL COMPRESSOR

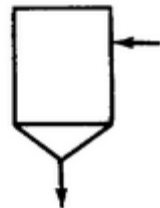


M-MOTOR
T-TURBINE

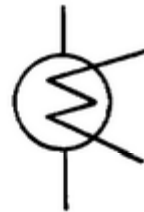
BAROMETRIC CONDENSER



JET CONDENSER



SURFACE CONDENSER



COOLER OR HEAT EXCHANGER

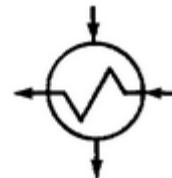
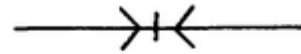
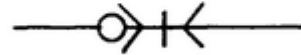


Figure 4-4. Heat power symbols.

QUICK DISCONNECT-
WITHOUT CHECKS



WITH ONE CHECK



WITH TWO CHECKS



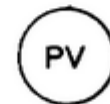
WITH CHECK DISCONNECTED



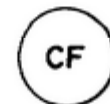
SINGLE HYDRAULIC PUMP,
FIXED DISPLACEMENT



SINGLE HYDRAULIC PUMP,
VARIABLE DISPLACEMENT



AIR COMPRESSOR, FIXED
DISPLACEMENT



ROTARY FLUID MOTOR-
FIXED DISPLACEMENT



VARIABLE DISPLACEMENT



OSCILLATING



Figure 4-5. Fluid power diagram symbols.

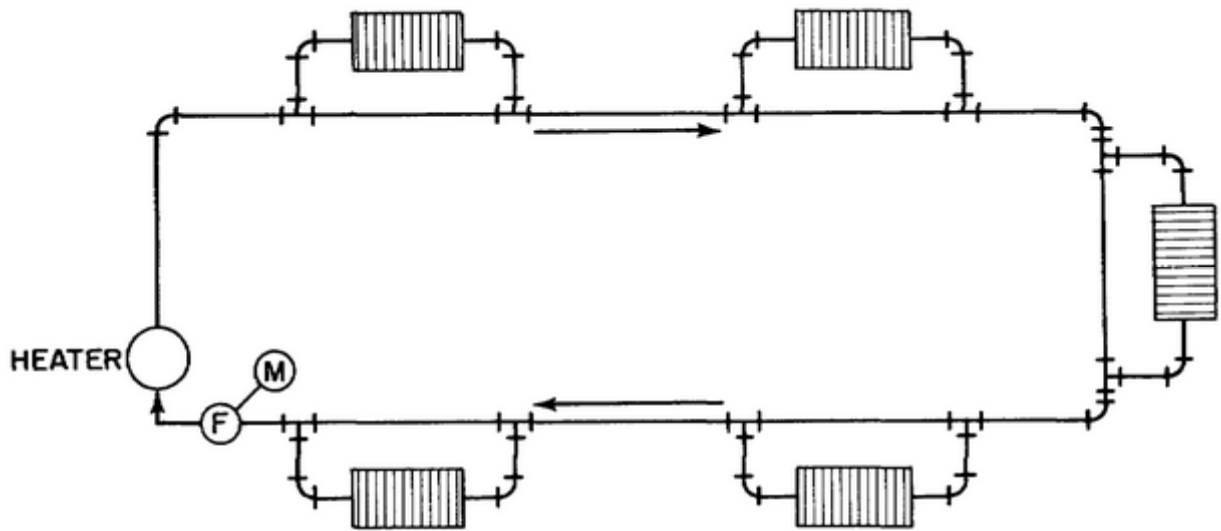


Figure 4-6. One-pipe hot-water heating system diagram.

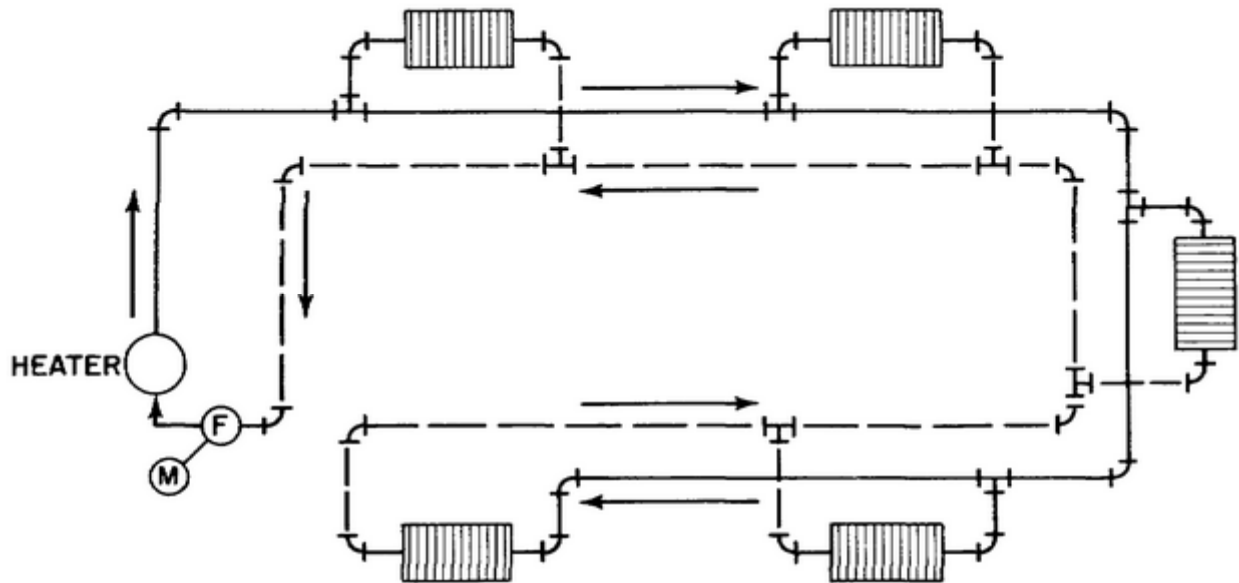


Figure 4-7. Two-pipe hot-water heating system diagram.

heater unit via separate return piping, elbows, and tees.

c. Hot-Water Heating System Plans. You may find a separate plan for the hot-water heating system or you may find that the plan of the heating system is incorporated with the hot and cold water and sewer lines on the plumbing plan. A plan of a hot-water heating system shows you the layout of units, piping, accessories, and connections. A typical

hot-water heating system plan is illustrated in figure 4-8. (Figure 4-8 also shows electrical utility which you may disregard for this discussion). You can see that the location of the boiler, circulating pump, and compression tank are noted. Follow the supply piping from the boiler and you can see that the one-pipe system is used; however, the hot water will flow in two directions or loops. Each loop contains two radiators. The second radiator in each loop is larger than the first. The plan

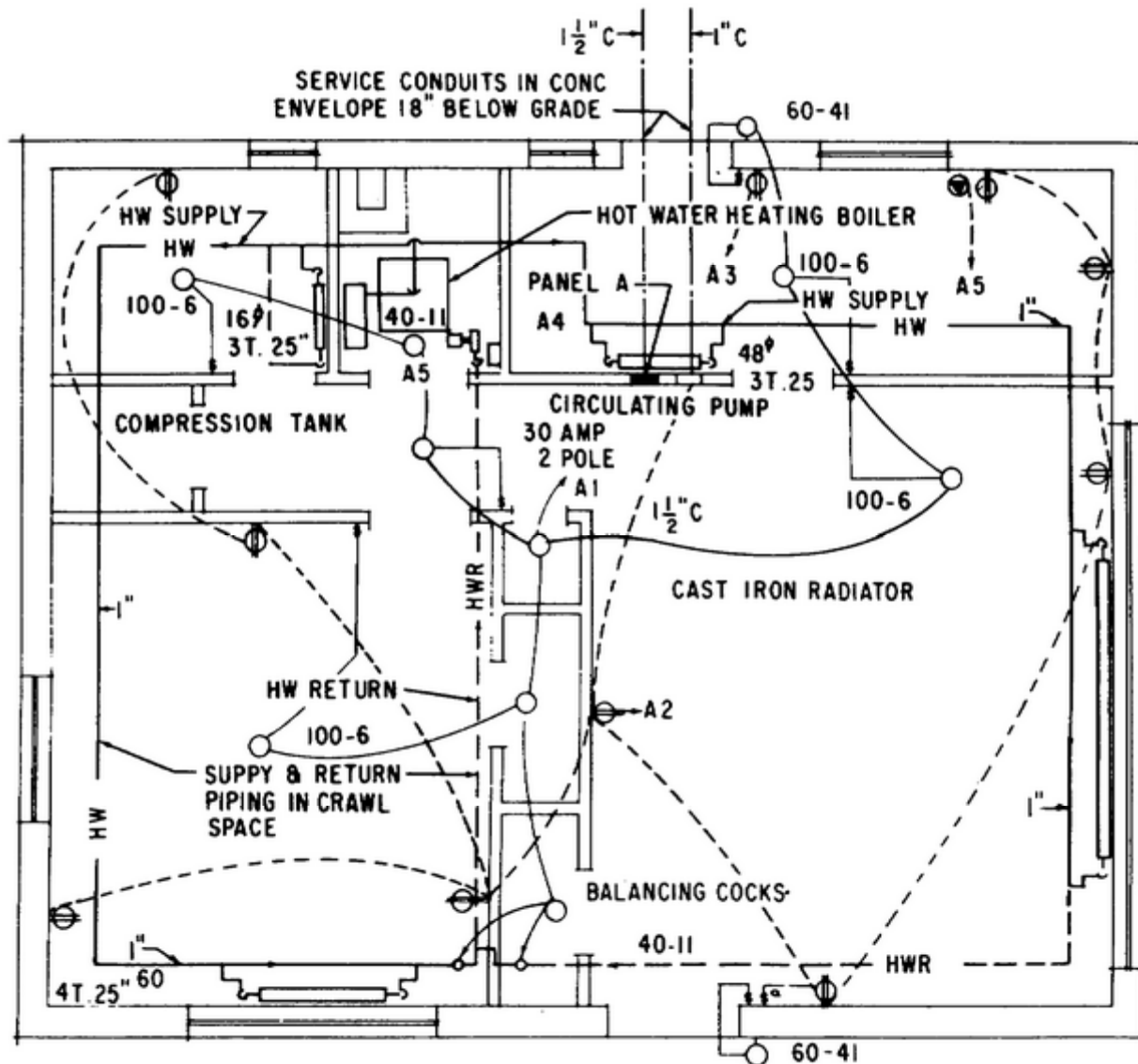


Figure 4-8. Typical hot-water heating system plan.

also notes that the piping is 1 inch and is located in the crawl space.

4.3. WARM-AIR HEATING SYSTEMS

Distribution of heated air through a duct system describes a warm-air heating system. Usually, gas-fired or oil-fired furnaces are used to heat the air, but you may also heat air by passing the air through steam or water-heated coils.

a. Typical Warm-Air System. A warm air heating system consists of a furnace, a bonnet, warm-

air supply ducts and registers return (cold) -air registers and ducts, and 2 fan or blower for forced circulation. A warm air heating system is shown in figure 4-9. Note the bonnet above the heat plant where the heated air is collected for distribution to the various rooms. The warm air is distributed from the bonnet through the supply ducts and discharged into the room through registers or grills. You can see that the ducts are rectangular in shape and that the warm-air register is installed in the ceiling. (Some of the systems might have round ducts and warm-air

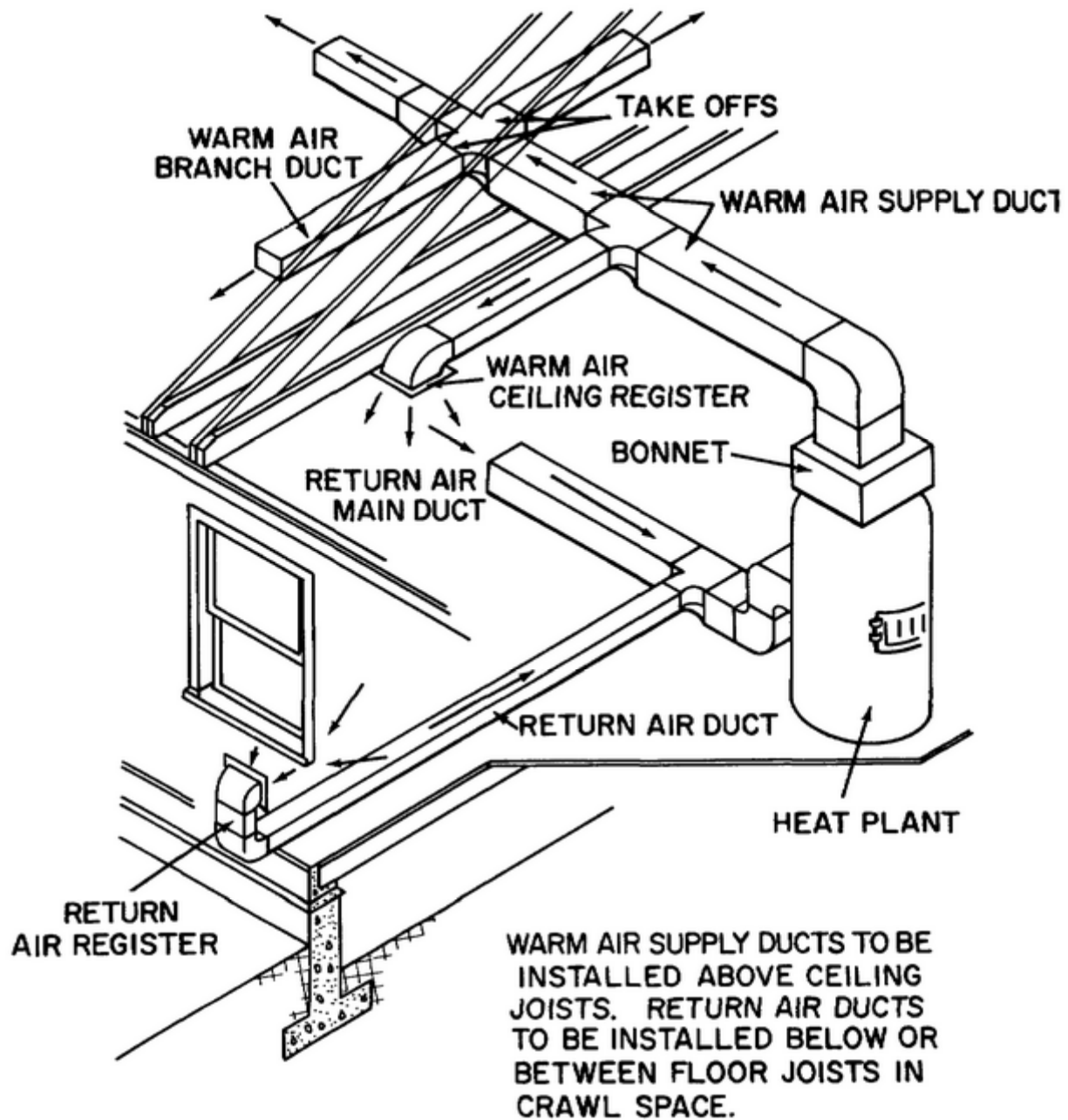


Figure 4-9. Warm air heating system.

registers in the wall.) The air, after circulating through the room and losing heat, is returned to the heat plant via the cold-air return registers and ducts. The return-air register is placed in the wall just below the window and the return-air duct is installed in the crawl space. The warm-air distribution via the branch ducts to the other rooms of the building would be the same as the examples.

b. Design Principles. The comfort zone concept is the basis for all heating design. The comfort zone is defined as the horizontal area from the top of an average man's head to his knees. It is apparent that if the air from the supply registers were blown directly on a person, he would be very uncomfortable. To avoid this, the registers are placed either above or below the comfort zone; i.e., high on the wall or in the baseboard. Warm-air systems are laid out so that the warm air from the registers is directed at the cold exterior walls. Therefore, the warm-air registers are placed on interior walls or ceilings. The registers for the cold air return are always located at baseboard height. The reason for this location is probably obvious to you. Cold air is heavy and collects at the floor of the room; thus, the registers located in the baseboard collect the air. The cold air is motivated through the return ducts to the furnace for reheating and recirculation. Furnace location is also important to proper warm-air heating. It is good design policy to locate the furnace room centrally in the building plan to equalize duct lengths. In addition, the main (trunk) ducts should run above a central corridor to equalize branch duct lengths to individual rooms. See figure 4-10 for illustrations of some of the common rectangular duct connections. Illustration 1 is a typical warm-air bonnet with two main supply ducts. Two possible elbow connections

are shown in [2]. The split tee [3] is used to direct the flow of air on the warm side of the system. On the cold-air return, the straight tee [3] may be used. Truck duct takeoffs are shown in [4] and [5]. In the double branch connection, less air is present in the main duct after some of the air has been channeled into branch ducts. Therefore; the size can be reduced after the connection. The single branch connection shows two methods of reduction. The first occurs at the connection in a horizontal direction; the second is effected by a vertical reduction in depth. In both double and single branch take-off the branch connections form a natural air scoop to encourage air-flow in the desired direction. A boot fitting from branch to stack, the stack terminating at a warm-air register is illustrated in [6] figure 4-10. Using a boot is one method of changing the shape of a duct without changing its equivalent cross section area or constricting the flow of air.

c. Warm-Air Heating System Plans. Warm-air ducts are indicated in the heating plan by solid lines. Cold-air return ducts are indicated by dashed lines. See figure 4-11. Note that all the duct sizes are given. The duct sizes are given with the horizontal or width dimension listed first. The second dimension gives the depth of the duct which is not shown. On the plan, you can locate the warm-air registers and obtain the sizes. When ceiling registers (diffusers) are used, the neck dimensions are shown on the plan (as in figure 4-11). When wall or baseboard registers are used, face dimensions are given. The height of wall registers above finished floor line would be given to you in the notes on the plan. Cold-air return registers are shown recessed into the wall. The face dimensions of the return register are noted adjacent to the symbol.

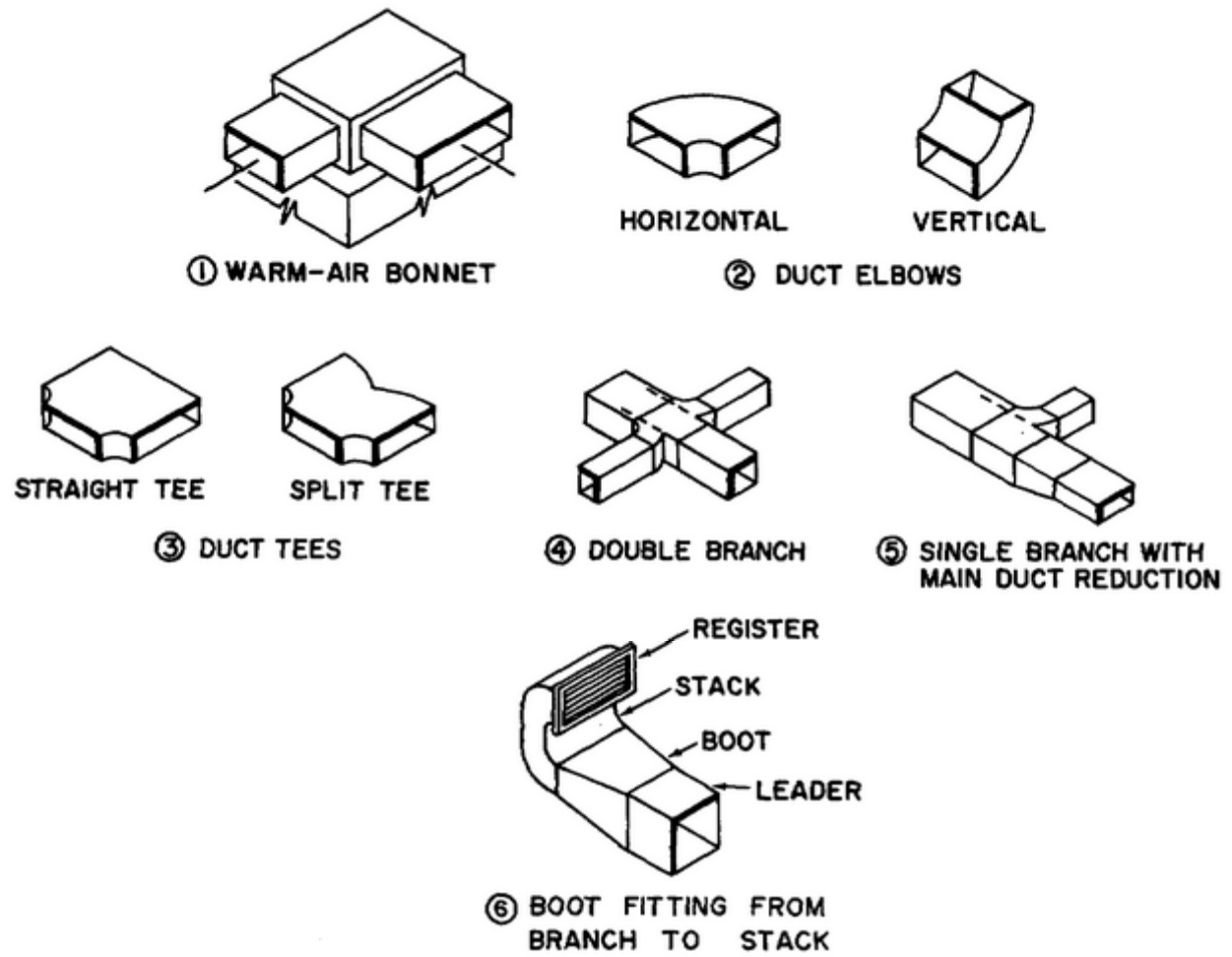


Figure 4-10. Duct connections.

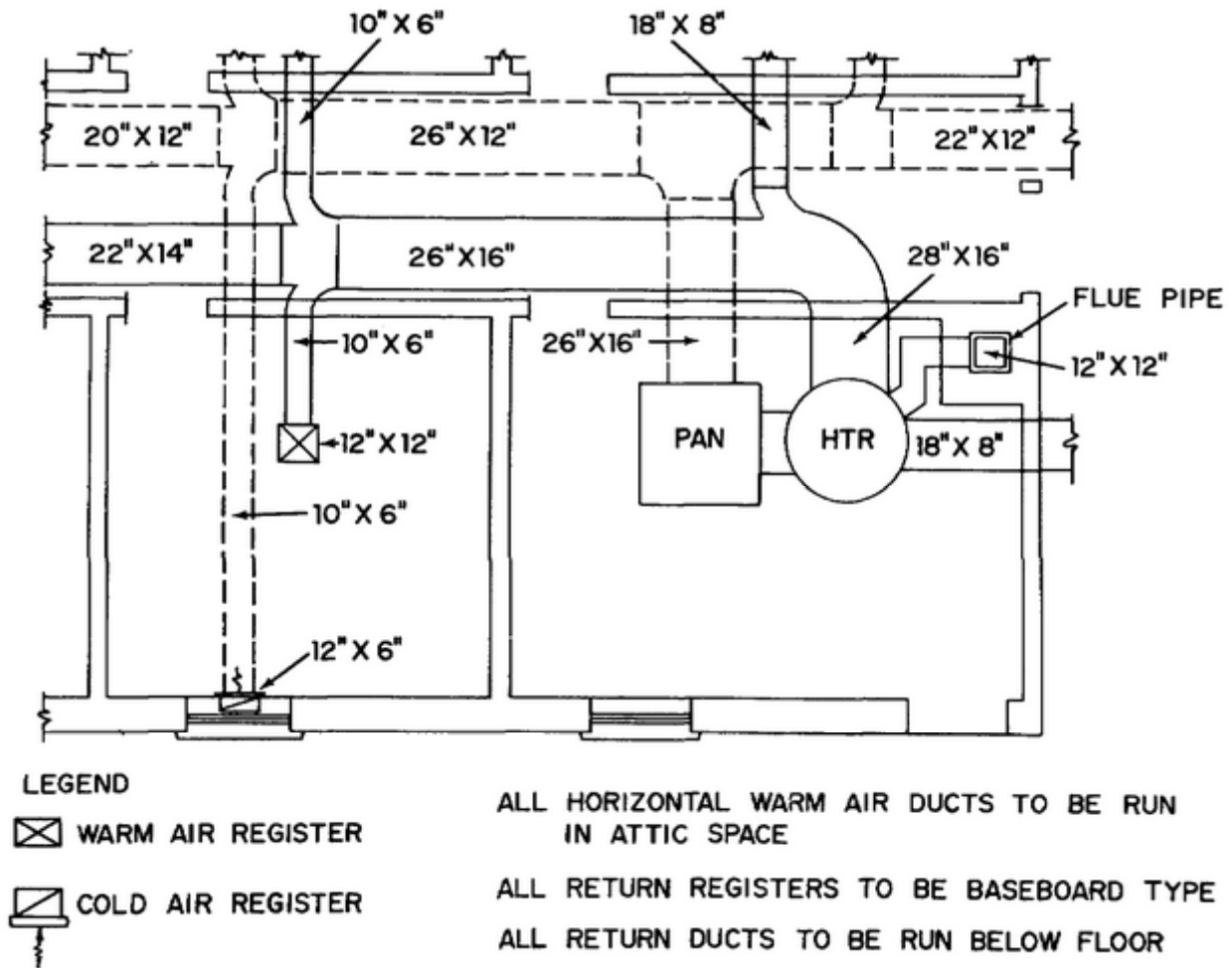


Figure 4-11. Typical warm air heating stem plan.

REVIEW QUESTION 1

What are the two classes of hot-water heating systems? (para 4-2,a,b)

REVIEW QUESTION 2

What are the components of a warm-air heating system? (para 4-3,a)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 1

The two classes of hot-water heating systems are the one-pipe system and the two-pipe system (para 4-2,a,b)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 2

A warm-air heating system consists of a furnace, a bonnet, warm-air supply ducts and registers, return (cold)-air registers and ducts, and a fan or blower for forced circulation. (para 4-3,a)

Section II. Air Conditioning

4-4. INTRODUCTION

Air-conditioning, as defined by the American Society of Heating and Air-Conditioning Engineers, is "the process of treating air so as to control simultaneously its temperature, humidity, cleanliness, and distribution to meet the requirements of the conditioned space: ' You should be familiar with basic elements of an air-conditioning system and their graphic representation if you are to interpret drawings depicting air-conditioning systems. Some common symbols that you should be able to identify are shown in figures 4-12 and 4-13. The conventional symbols most commonly used on systems employed in military installations are listed in appendix A. Symbols used to depict ductwork are the same for warm-air heating, ventilating, and air-conditioning systems. Items common to heating, air-conditioning, ventilating, and/or refrigeration (such as fan motors and temperature control devices) are depicted by the same symbols on the respective drawings. For example, the symbol for thermostat as shown in figure 4-2 also applies to air-conditioning.

4-5. AIR-CONDITIONING SYSTEM

An air-conditioning system comprises several distinct units, each designed to perform a specific function. The system may be divided into three functional subsystems: refrigerant, control, and air path. Refrigeration is covered in Section III. The control subsystem consists of the compressor motor, fan motor, starting and running circuit, relay, pressure or temperature control switch, and thermostat. It is the air path that is of prime interest to you when reading construction prints. This includes the ductwork, grills, dampers, and screens.

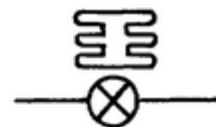
4-6. TYPICAL AIR-CONDITIONING PLAN

A plan of heating and air-conditioning systems for a hospital is shown in figure 4-14. You should disregard, for this discussion, everything on figure 4-14 that does not relate to the air-conditioning system. The plan indicates three self-contained air-conditioning units which are located in the mechanical equipment room. Note that the ductwork

CIRCULATING CHILLED OR HOT-WATER FLOW	——— CH ———
CIRCULATING CHILLED OR HOT-WATER RETURN	- - - - CHR - - - -
CONDENSER WATER FLOW	——— C ———
CONDENSER WATER RETURN	- - - - CR - - - -
MAKE-UP WATER	- - - - -

Figure 4-12. Air-conditioning, piping symbol.

WATER VALVE



LINE VIBRATION ABSORBER



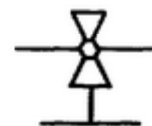
HAND EXPANSION VALVE



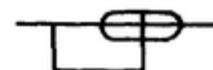
MAGNETIC STOP VALVE



SNAP ACTION VALVE



SUCTION VAPOR
REGULATING VALVE



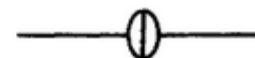
THERMO SUCTION VALVE



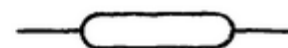
THERMOSTATIC EXPANSION VALVE



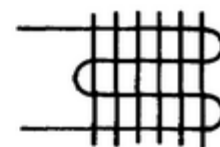
LINE FILTER



LINE FILTER & STRAINER



NATURAL CONVECTION FINNED-TYPE
COOLING UNIT



FORCED CONVECTION COOLING UNIT

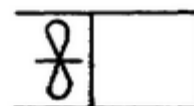


Figure 4-13 Air-conditioning symbols.

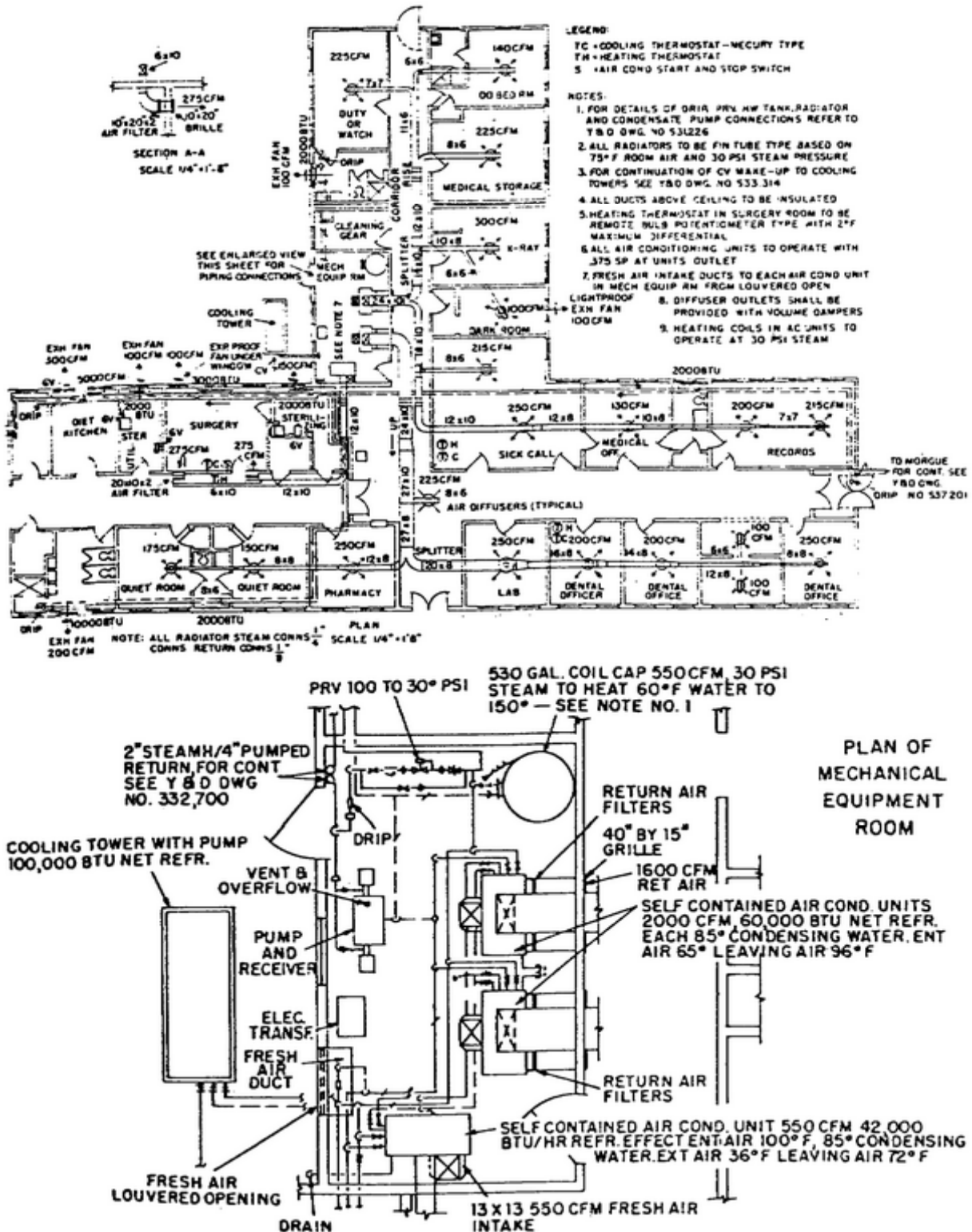


Figure 4-14. Air-conditioning system plan.

from the two main units is split and the size of the ducts reduced. The plan also shows you the amount of air each diffuser is to supply. For example, the supply to the lab is rated at 250 cfm while the dark room is to receive air at 100 cfm. You can see that the third air-conditioning unit supplies surgery only.

The enlarged plan view of the mechanical equipment room shows you the piping connections. This piping is read in the same manner as you would read the piping on a hot water plan. For example, note the condenser water flow (c) to the three air-conditioning units.

REVIEW QUESTION 3

An air-conditioning system may be divided into three functional subsystems: refrigeration, control, and air path. What parts are included in the air path subsystem? (para 4-5)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 3

The air path includes the duct-work, grills, dampers, and screens. (para 4-5)

Section III. Refrigeration

4-7. INTRODUCTION

Refrigeration is the process of extracting heat from a specially designed building, room, or box. There are two general classes of refrigeration systems: built-up and packaged. The built-up refrigeration system is the type you erect to the manufacturer's specifications within a theater of operations special type building which keeps out heat. Package units are delivered complete with prefabrication rooms or boxes and erection diagrams. You would read the prints of either system in the same manner.

4-8. CONVENTIONS

A number of conventional symbols for depicting common refrigeration equipment and fittings on prints are shown in figures 4-15 and 4-16. Additional symbols of commonly employed refrigeration devices are listed in appendix A. Become familiar with the common conventions so that you can more easily interpret a refrigeration print.

4-9. MATERIALS AND FITTINGS

You will find no difference between the material and fittings used for hook-up of refrigeration systems and standard plumbing. The standards are galvanized steel and iron, and copper tubing with sweat-soldered fittings.

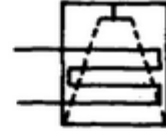
4-10. REFRIGERATION PLANS

Refrigeration plans for theater of operations type construction generally only show the placement of the principle units in the building or room. Figure 4-17 illustrates the standard plan of a typical small refrigerated building. Plumbing and wiring details are not given: such details are left to the competent journeymen. The plan shown in figure 4-17 provides data for a 52-foot or a 100-foot refrigerated warehouse or icehouse. The refrigerated storage area would have one unit cooler in a 52-foot warehouse, whereas a 100-foot warehouse requires two units. A separate machine room is utilized to house the condenser receiver and compressors.

BRINE RETURN	— — — BR — — —
BRINE SUPPLY	— — — B — — —
REFRIGERANT DISCHARGE	— — — RD — — —
REFRIGERANT LIQUID	— — — RL — — —
REFRIGERANT SUCTION	— — — RS — — —

Figure 4-15. Refrigeration piping symbols.

EVAPORATIVE CONDENSER



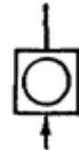
GAUGE



HIGH SIDE FLOAT



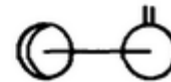
LOW SIDE FLOAT



MOTOR-COMPRESSOR, ENCLOSED
CRANKCASE, RECIPROCATING,
DIRECT CONNECTED



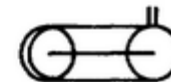
MOTOR-COMPRESSOR, ENCLOSED
CRANKCASE, ROTARY, DIRECT
CONNECTED



MOTOR-COMPRESSOR, SEALED
CRANKCASE, RECIPROCATING



MOTOR-COMPRESSOR, SEALED
CRANKCASE, ROTARY



SCALE TRAP



THERMOSTAT (REMOTE BULB)



Figure 4-16. Refrigeration symbols.

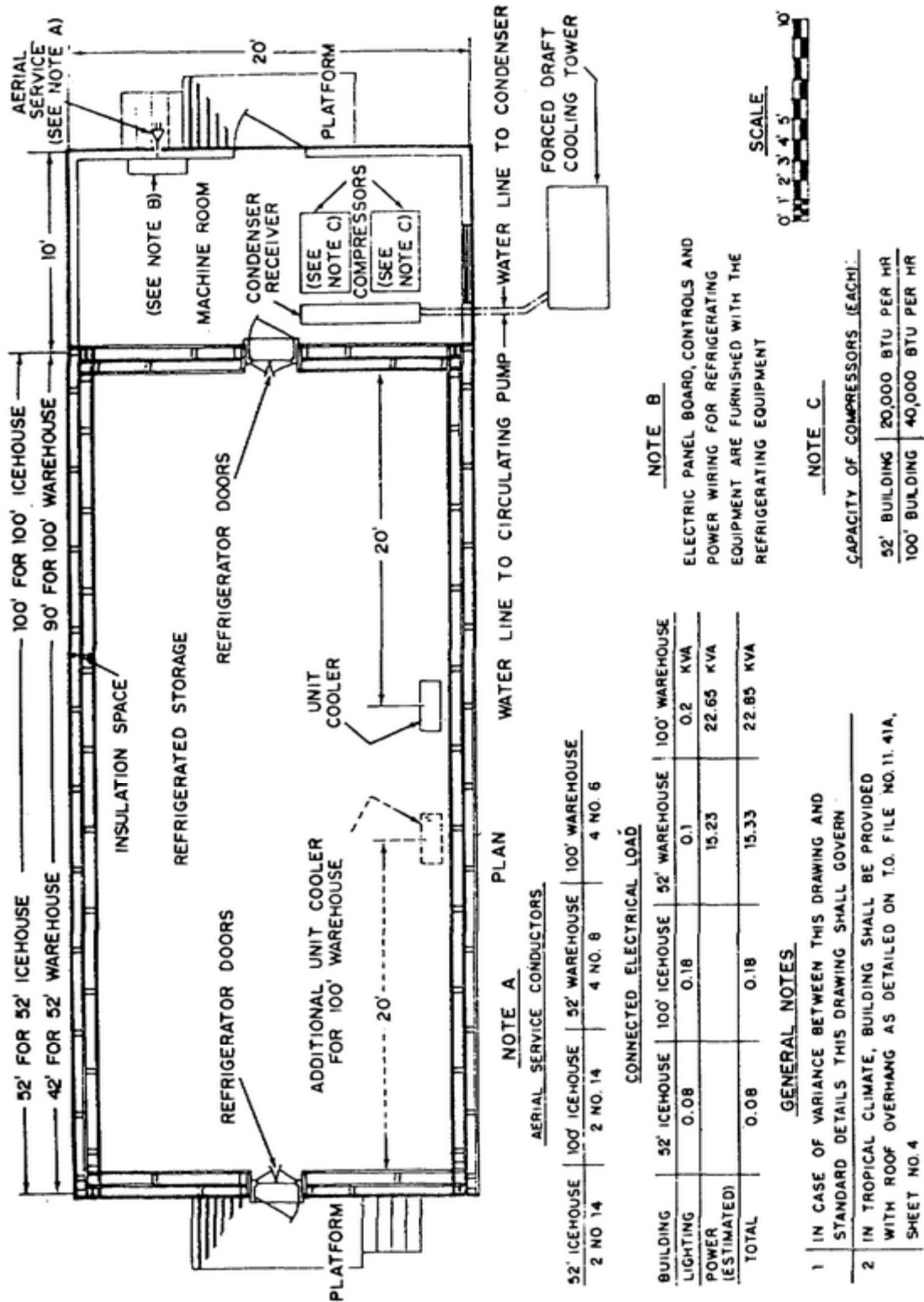


Figure 4-17. Typical small refrigerated warehouse or ice house, all climates.

REVIEW QUESTION 4

What are the two general classes of refrigeration systems? (para 4-7)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 4

The two general classes of refrigeration systems are the built-up refrigeration system and the packaged refrigeration system. (para 4-7)

LESSON 4 SELF TEST EXERCISES

Upon completion of the text assignment, solve the following self test exercises based on lesson objectives.

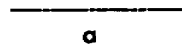
NOTE: The following exercises are study aids. References to related information in the reading material are shown in parentheses after each question. Write your answer in the space provided below each question. When you have finished answering all the questions for this lesson, compare your answers with those given for this lesson in the back of the booklet. Review the lesson as necessary.

Objective 1. ELEMENTS OF HEATING SYSTEMS. List the basic elements of hot-water and warm-air heating systems and explain their functions. (Answer questions 1 through 5.)

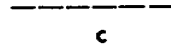
1. The two classes of hot-water systems are the one-pipe and two-pipe systems, the one-pipe being the simplest form. Which of the following statements pertains to the one-pipe system? (para 4-2,a)
 - a. Hot water is piped directly to each radiator.
 - b. Hot water circulates through at least two mains.
 - c. The last radiator in circuit will be larger than the first radiator.
 - d. Water temperature at last radiator in circuit will be the same as at the first radiator.
2. The two-pipe system is used to heat large installations since the one-pipe system is adequate for small installations only. Which of the following statements pertains to the two-pipe system? (para 4-2,b)
 - a. Hot water circulates through at least two mains.
 - b. Hot water circulates through each radiator in turn.
 - c. The last radiator in circuit will be larger than first radiator.
 - d. Cool water leaving radiators returns to the heater through separate return piping.
3. In a one-pipe system, the pipe returning water to the heating source from the last radiator of a heating circuit, or loop, is considered a hot-water return line. Note the one-pipe system of figure 4-8. How many hot-water return lines are required? (para 4-2,c) (fig 4-8)
4. Referring again to figure 4-8, what size pipe, in inches, is used for the heating system? (para 4-2,c) (fig 4-8)
5. In designing a warm-air heating system, it is desirable to have the furnace centrally located. For what reason is this so? (para 4-3,b)

Objective 2. HEATING ELEMENT SYMBOLS. Identify the graphic symbols used for heating system elements and interpret the heating elements used on plumbing or heating system plans. (Answer questions 6 through 8.)

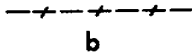
6. The symbols below show four piping symbols for hot water and steam. Which symbol represents a hot-water heating return? (para 4-1,c) (fig 4-1)



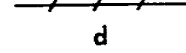
a



c

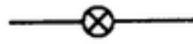


b



d

7. The delivery portion of a warm-air heating system distributes air, heated by a furnace, through supply ducts to various rooms where the air is discharged through registers or grills. Which of the symbols shown below represents a supply register? (para 4-3,a) (fig 4-2)



a



c



b

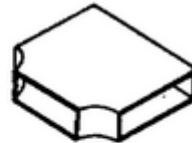


d

8. When forming branch ducts leading from or to the main ducts, changing the direction of ducts, or reducing the duct size, various types of connections are employed. Which of the connections shown below is a split tee? (para 4-3,b) (fig 4-10)



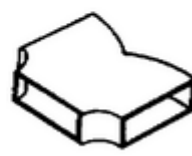
a



c



b



d

Objective 3. AIR-CONDITIONING SYSTEM UNITS. Describe the units which make up an air-conditioning system and how they function. (Answer questions 9 and 10.)

9. What are the components of the control subsystem in an air-conditioning system? (para 4-5)
10. What are the parts of the air path subsystem in an air-conditioning system? (para 4-5)

Objective 4. AIR-CONDITIONING SYSTEM SYMBOLS. Identify common symbols for air-conditioning system components and interpret the meaning of these symbols as used on plans to indicate air-conditioning. (Answer questions 11 through 13.)

11. Figure 4-14 shows a plan view of an air-conditioning system. Note that the sizes of the various ducts are given on the plan. What size duct connects the sick call room diffuser with the medical office diffuser? (para 4-5) (fig 4-14)
12. Referring again to figure 4-14, at what pressure, in pounds per square inch, is the steam in the heating coils of the air-conditioning units to be maintained? (para 4-6) (fig 4-14)
13. Note that the legend of figure 4-14 explains the meaning of certain lettered symbols. With the aid of this legend, how many mercury type cooling thermostats are indicated on the air-conditioning plan? (para 4-6) (fig 4-14)

Objective 5. REFRIGERATION ELEMENTS SYMBOLS. Identify symbols used for elements of refrigerated structures and interpret the representation of refrigeration systems on drawings. (Answer questions 14 and 15.)

14. According to figure 4-17, what will be the capacity of each compressor, in British thermal units per hour, if a 100-foot building is constructed? (para 4-10) (fig 4-17)
15. Referring again to figure 4-17, if a 52-foot warehouse were to be constructed, how many unit coolers would be required? (para 4-10) (fig 4-17)

LESSON 5

BILLS OF MATERIALS

TEXT ASSIGNMENTAttached Memorandum.

LESSON OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this lesson on Bills of Materials, you should be able to accomplish the following in the indicated topic areas:

1. **Terminology.** Define the term "bill of materials."
2. **Organization of Bills of Materials.** Describe the organization of a bill of materials.
3. **Reading Bills of Materials.** Read a bill of materials for a construction project to determine quantities needed for each type of material.

ATTACHED MEMORANDUM

Section I. Compilation of Bills of Materials.

5-1. DEFINITION

A bill of materials is a grouped compilation based on takeoffs and estimates of all materials needed to complete a structure. The bill of materials for a given project is organized into a tabulated statement to include item number (parts and materials), name, description, unit of measure, quantity and, where called for, the stock size and number, and sometimes the weight. You may be familiar with bills of materials by some other designation such as "materials takeoff sheets" or "materials estimate sheets."

5-2. COMPILATION

Bills of materials are usually made up by the draftsman at the time of preparation of the original drawings; you simply utilize them when ordering materials. However, where no bills of materials accompany field prints they must be compiled by the constructing or erecting forces; thus, you should understand and be able to work with or develop bills of materials. Reasonable accuracy can best be

obtained by having separate bills of materials prepared by at least two estimators. They can then be compared and one copy corrected or both consolidated into a final bill of materials.

a. Takeoff and Estimate. The takeoff usually is an actual tally and checkoff of the items shown, noted, or specified on the construction drawings and specifications. The estimated quantities are those known to be necessary but which may not have been placed on the drawings, such as nails, cement, concrete-form lumber and tie wire, temporary bracing or scaffold lumber, etc. These are calculated from a knowledge of construction methods that will be used for field erection. You can use the information given in appendix B to help in making up an estimate.

b. Plans. Both architectural and engineering plans provide the means by which names of the various items can be listed in order to make up the bills of materials. Indicated or scaled dimensions of buildings or utilities layouts are used to determine material unit dimensions.

c. Quantities. Quantities are usually taken from the plans by extracting and listing one type of material at a time followed by a regrouping of those types by sizes commencing with the smallest and progressing to the largest.

d. Tabulation. The tabulation should include column headings for each item as follows:

(1) Item number. Number of the item in each section.

(2) Section number. The number assigned to the appropriate major groups such as: general construction, electrical, plumbing, etc.

(3) Item name.

(4) Unit of measure.

(5) Quantity.

REVIEW QUESTION 1

How is the bill of materials for a given project organized? (para 5-1)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 1

The bill of materials for a given project is organized into a tabulated statement to include item number (parts and materials); name; description; unit of measure; quantity; and, where called for, the stock size and number; and sometimes the weight. (para 5-1)

Section II. Reading Bills of Materials

5-3. EXAMPLE BILL OF MATERIALS

a. Figure 5-1 shows the floor plan and detail drawings for a 50-man barracks on a concrete floor. This set of construction drawings should be sufficient to develop a bill of materials.

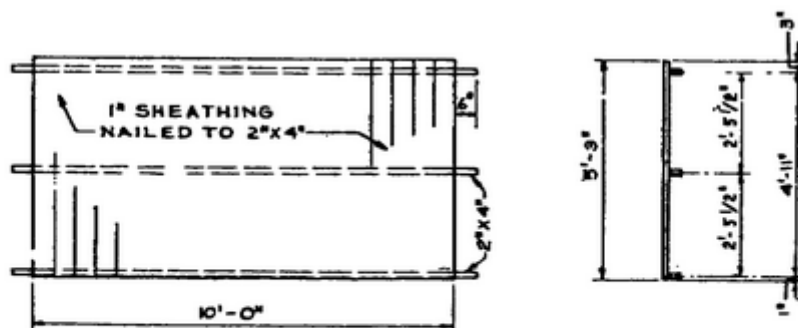
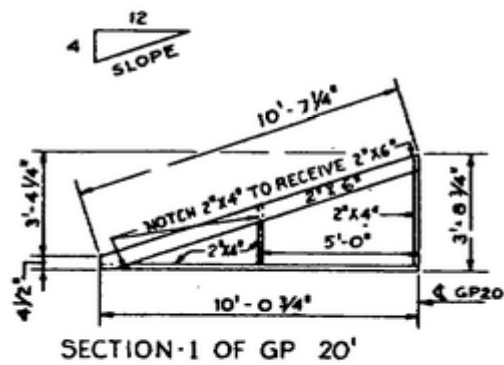
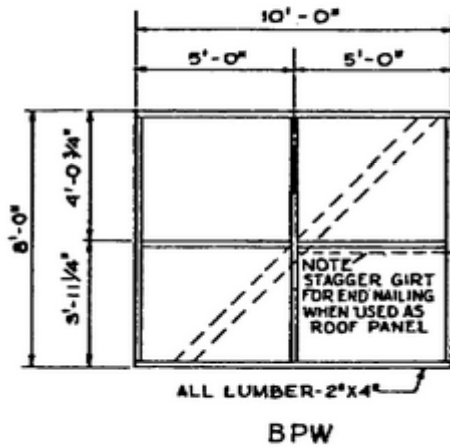
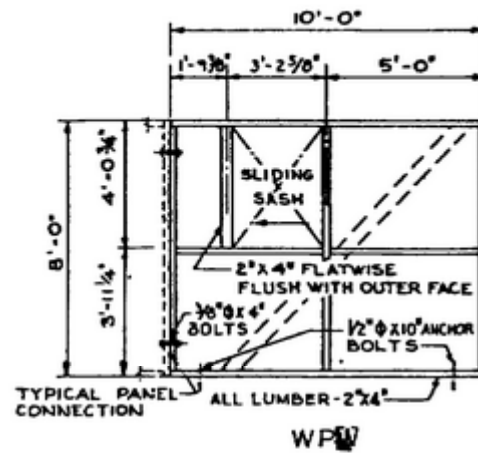
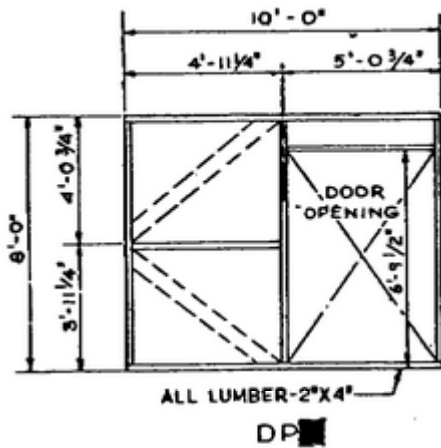
b. Figure 5-2 is the bill of materials for the 50-man barracks. It contains a great deal of information. To develop a detailed bill of materials such as this would require experience in construction print reading, construction procedures, and methods of estimating quantities.

5-4. READING PREPARED BILL OF MATERIALS

As stated previously, the bill of materials is usually made up by the draftsman at the time of preparation of the original drawings. It is important that you be able to read a prepared bill of materials.

a. Heading. The headings were discussed in paragraph 5-2d. Under quantities required in figure 5-2, the types of wall panels are: (1) WPW-window panel, (2) DPW-door panel, and (3) BPW-blank panel. The final W after all the abbreviations indicates that wood cladding and felt are to be used to cover the structure.

b. Body. In the body, each of the major groups (frame, cladding, floor, etc.) have been listed separately. Each major group has been subdivided into groups of common items and under the subgroups the individual items have been listed and described in detail. For example, the major group, FRAME, has been divided into the subgroups, lumber and nails. Then, under lumber, each size board that is needed is listed and described. The units of measure for each item are abbreviated. You should be familiar with these abbreviations. The amounts listed under quantities required are those required for the total structure. Figure 5-3 is the construction drawing for a frame for an officer's tent. Figure 5-4 is a completed bill of materials for figure 5-3.



ROOF PANEL RP

SCALE NO. 4

Figure 5-1. Continued.

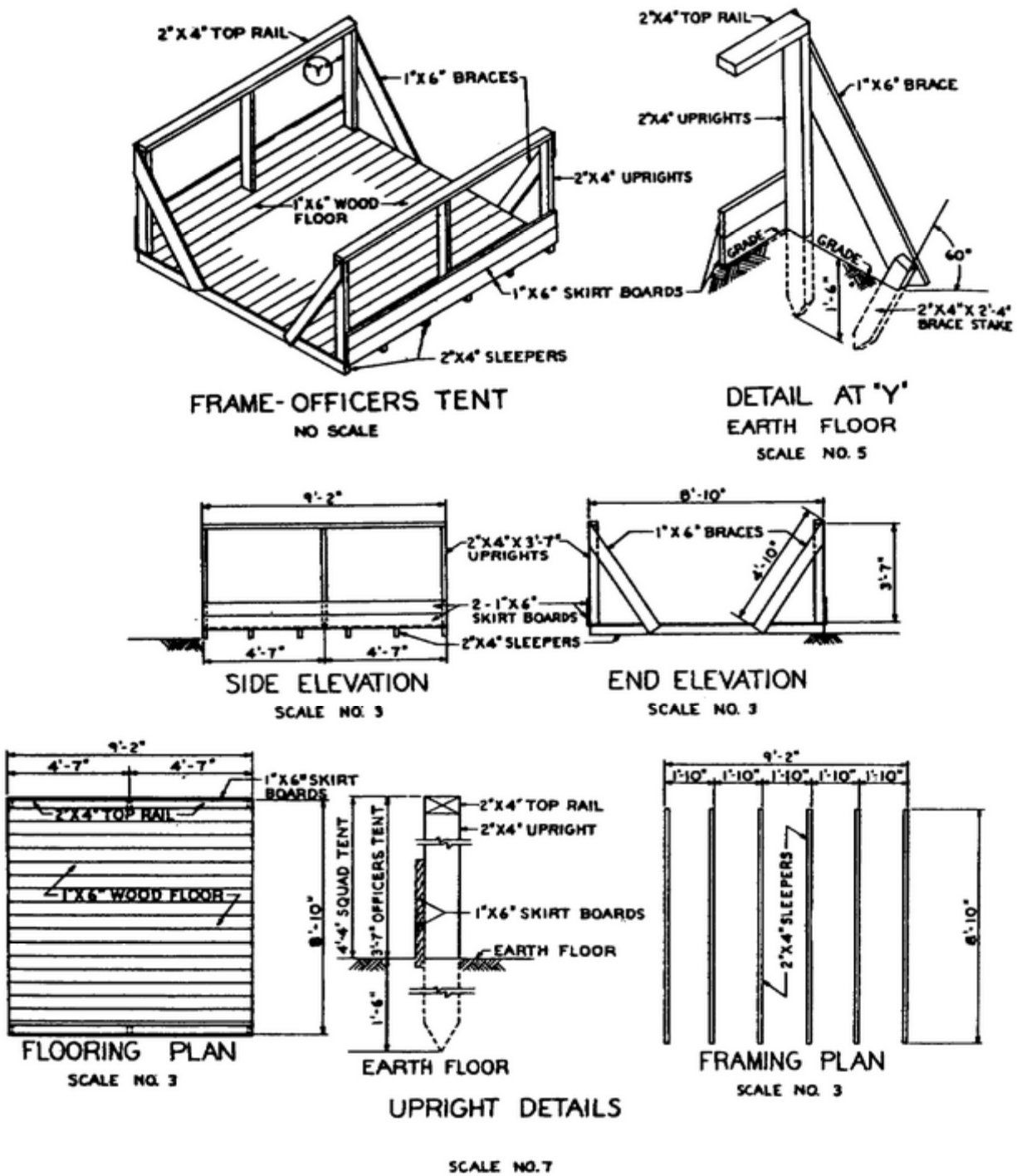


Figure 5-3. Construction drawing for frame for officer's tent.

Item No.	Sect No.	Item	Unit	Quantities required
	05	FLOOR		
		Lumber		
1		1 x 6-10 ft	PCS	22
2		2 x 4-10 ft	PCS	6
		Nails		
3		10D common	LB	2.5
	06	INTERIOR HAMMER AND SAW WORK		
		Lumber		
1		1 x 6-10 ft	PCS	6
2		2 x 4-10 ft	PCS	7
		Nails		
3		10D common	LB	1.5

Figure 5-4. Bill of materials for frame for officer tent.

REVIEW QUESTION 2

Under headings required in figure 5-2, the types of wall panels are: (1) WPW-window panel, (2) DPW-door panel, and (3) BPW-blank panel. What does the final W after the abbreviations indicate? (para 5-4,a) (fig 5-2)

ANSWER TO REVIEW QUESTION 2

The final W after all the abbreviations indicates that wood cladding and felt are to be used to cover the structure. (para 5-4,a) (fig 5-2)

LESSON 5 SELF TEST EXERCISES

Upon completion of the text assignment, solve the following self test exercises based on lesson objectives.

NOTE: The following exercises are study aids. References to related information in the reading material are shown in parentheses after each question. Write your answer in the space provided below each question. When you have finished answering all the questions for this lesson, compare your answers with those given for this lesson in the back of the booklet. Review the lesson as necessary.

Objective 1. TERMINOLOGY. Define the term "bill of materials: (Answer question 1.)

1. A bill of materials is a listing of the required quantities of all materials needed to complete a structure. The quantities specified will be compiled using a combination of takeoffs and estimates. Which of the following would most likely be computed by using a takeoff instead of an estimate? (para 5-2,a)
 - a. bags of cement for floor
 - b. pounds of nails used for cladding
 - c. pieces of lumber used for framing
 - d. pieces of lumber used for scaffolding

Objective 2. ORGANIZATION OF BILLS OF MATERIALS. Describe the organization of a bill of materials. (Answer questions 2 through 4.)

2. With respect to the column headings of a typical bill of materials, which of the following is used to designate major groups of construction such as cladding, floor, interior electrical work, etc? (para 5-2,d) (fig 52)
 - a. section number
 - b. section letter
 - c. item number
 - d. item letter
3. Each of the major construction groups is listed separately in the body of the bill of materials, and is subdivided into groups of common items. In which column will you find the specifications of individual items described in detail? (para 5-4,b) (fig 5-2)
4. Assume that you have calculated a requirement for 10 pieces of 2 x 4, 8 feet in length. From this information, what will be listed under the "quantities required" column? (para 5-4,b)(fig 5-2)

Objective 3. READING BILLS OF MATERIALS. Read a bill of materials for a construction project to determine quantities needed for each type of material. (Answer questions 5 through 10.)

5. Reference figure 5-3. Which of the following is the correct calculation for determining the number of pieces of 1 x 6 common lumber, 10 feet long, needed for the floor? Remember that boards are specified on drawings by nominal sizes (refer to table 2-1 in lesson 2) and assume a 15-percent waste factor. (para 5-4) (table 2-1) (fig 5-3)
 - a. $(106" \text{ divided by } 5 \frac{1}{4}) \div .85$
 - b. $(106" \text{ divided by } 5 \frac{1}{2}) \div .85$
 - c. $(110" \text{ divided by } 5 \frac{1}{2}) \div .85$
 - d. $(110" \text{ divided by } 5 \frac{1}{4}) \div .85$

6. Assuming each board is correctly cut to proper length (i.e., disregard a waste factor), how many pieces of 2 x 4 common lumber, 10 feet long, will be required for the sleepers beneath the floor? (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
7. If you were ordering lumber in 10-foot lengths, how many pieces of 1 x 6 lumber would you order for the side braces? Disregard the use of any waste factor. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
8. How many pieces of 1 x 6 common lumber, 10 feet long, are needed for the skirt boards? Do not use a waste factor. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
9. What is the minimum number of pieces of 2 x 4 common lumber, 10 feet long, that must be ordered to make the top rails and the uprights? Disregard a waste factor and assume that each of the four corner uprights is 3'7" above the ground and 1'6" below ground (a total length of 5'1" each) and that the two center uprights rest on the floor, requiring them to each be 3'7" in length. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
10. Notice that a 2 x 4 brace stake 2'4" in length is needed for each of the four 1 x 6 braces. Disregarding a waste factor, what is the minimum number of pieces of 2 x 4 common lumber, 10 feet long, needed to make the brace stakes? (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)

LESSON 1 ANSWERS TO SELF TEST EXERCISES

1. In order to avoid conflict and confusion, and lend continuity to drawings, the meaning of a line with certain characteristics has been standardized and will be the same on any drawing. (para 1-2) (fig 1-2)
2. The outline is a heavyweight unbroken line used for the primary feature of a drawing. (para 1-2,a) (fig 1-2)
3. The arrows projected at 90 degrees to the cutting plane indicate the viewing direction of the section view. (para 1-2j) (fig 1-2)
4. In orthographic projection, the only lines and surfaces that project in true length and shape are those parallel to the plane of projection. Any lines perpendicular to the plane of projection will project as dots, and any lines angled to the plane will project shorter than true length. (para 1-4,a (1))
5. A perspective drawing uses either one or two vanishing points. It is not practical because the scale changes continuously along the receding lines. (para 1-4,b (3))
6. An isometric projection is a drawing where all three object planes form the same angle with the drawing plane and the amount of foreshortening is the same for all three axes. An isometric drawing is similar to an isometric projection except that the scale factor is enlarged and lines appear in true length. (para 1-4,b (1))
7. It is standard drafting practice that the front view show the object's most characteristic features. (para 1-4,a (4))
8. The top view shows width and depth in true length and the right side view shows height and depth in true length. The true length dimension common to both views is depth only. (para 1-4,a (4))
9. The drawing of a view showing surfaces as if they were parallel to the drawing plane when they, in fact, are not is called rotation. When this is done, it will be indicated on the drawing. (para 1-5,b)
10. Closely spaced parallel lines of medium thickness are used to mark the surfaces created by the cutting plane. (para 1-5,e)
11. A section view showing parts of an object as if they are rotated into or out of the cutting plane is an aligned section. (para 1-5,c (7))
12. Contact processes require sensitized paper. Optical copies can be made from opaque originals and are not less detailed than contact copies. However, contact processes are less expensive and have less distortion. (para 1-8)
13. Brownline prints and the ozalid process are both positive contact processes. (para 1-8,b (2))
14. Original or intermediate drawings used in contact processes should never be folded, in order to prevent creases. Creases prevent close contact with the copy paper. (para 1-9,b)

15. Table 1-1 lists finished format sizes. Looking in the category of "flat sizes" and under the column headings of height, length, and margin, it can be seen that a flat size drawing with a height of 22 inches, length of 34 inches, and .50-inch margin is size D. (para 1-10,**a**) (table 1-1)
16. Information usually found in the title block will be name and address of preparing agency, title of drawing, drafting record, authentication and date, scale and specification number, and drawing number and sheet number for multiple-sheet drawings. (para 1-10,**b**)
17. Since b'-d' of surface A is not parallel to any of the three orthographic views, none of the three views shows line b'-d' in true length. In order to show the surface in true length and shape, an auxiliary view is required. (para 1-13,**b**)
18. Line f'-h' on the oblique drawing is line s-u in the right side view and line d-e in the front view. Since this line is parallel to the front and right side planes of projection, it will project in true length. Line f'-h' appears as a dot (point h) in the top view. (para 1-13,**b**)
19. Line v-x in the right side view is line c'-e' on the oblique drawing. It can be seen that line c'-e' is line k-l in the top view. (para 1-13,**b**)
20. On the five surfaces shown, only surfaces B, C, and D are shown in true length and shape in at least one view. Surfaces B and D are true length and shape in the top view and surface C is true length and shape in the right side view. Surface A inclines to all three planes and cannot be shown in true length and shape. Surface E inclines to the front and right side views. Line a'-b' of surface E is shown in true length in the top view (line g-j), but the shape of surface E cannot be seen in the top view. (para 1-13,)

LESSON 2 ANSWERS TO SELF TEST EXERCISES

1. The construction working drawing presents a complete graphic description of the structure to be erected, the construction site, the materials to be used, and the construction method to be followed. (para 2-1,**a**)
2. Detail drawings comprise sections and detail views; general drawings consist of plans and elevations. (para 2-1,**a**)
3. Figure A-1 of the appendix contains typical architectural symbols and shows (a) as a double door, opening out; (b) as a double door, interior; (c) as a double window, opening out; and (d) as a single window, opening in. (para 2-2,**a**) (fig A-1, app A)
4. Using figure 2-2, which shows various material conventions, it can be seen that (a) represents concrete, (b) represents cut stone, (c) represents gravel, and (d) represents regular stone. (para 2-2,**b**) (fig 2-2)
5. From Schedule of Facilities: (fig 2-3) No. 4 is recreation building, No. 5 is athletic courts. Using arrow pointing north it can be seen that the easternmost athletic court is the one on the right.
 - (a) overall width of plot is 490 feet
 - (b) distance from western boundary to centerline of roadway is 125 feet
 - (c) distance from centerline of roadway to east side of recreation building is 60 feet + 120 feet = 180 feet
 - (d) distance from eastern boundary to west side of athletic court is 25 feet + 60 feet 85 feet
 - (e) adding b, c, and d: 125 feet + 180 feet + 85 feet = 390 feet
 - (f) subtracting e from a: 490 feet - 390 feet = 100 feet (para 2-2, **a,b**) (fig 2-3)
6. The surface elevation slopes downward toward the northwest corner; therefore, the water tank (No. 7) rests on the highest ground level, which is approximately 325 feet. (para 2-3,**a,b**) (fig 2-3)
7. On an elevation drawing, the centerline symbol is used to indicate finished floor lines. (para 2-4,**b**)
8. On a plan view, the symbol next to a stairway will indicate the direction of the stairs from the floor shown in the plan and the number of risers in the run. The symbol 18DN would mean that the number of risers in the run of stairs is 18. (para 2-5,**b**)
9. All items listed **except** the location of openings in foundation walls would be shown on detail drawings and not a foundation plan. (para 2-9)
10. The correct representation for lumber which has been surfaced on three sides and one edge would be S3S1E, (para 2-6,**c(1)(b)**)
11. The balloon frame is less rigid than a braced or western frame but represents a savings in material and labor. (para 2-7,**b**)

12. Wall sections run vertically from foundation to roof. (para 2-11,**b**)
13. Details are noted on a drawing by code. (para 2-12,**a**)
14. On section views, reinforcing bars perpendicular to the view are shown by round or square dots in accordance with the bar shape. Bars parallel to the section view are indicated by heavy dashed lines. (para 2-14,**b**(2))
15. Bars referenced by a band mark will be described in the slab schedule as in figure 2-20. (para 2-14,**c**) (fig 2-20)
16. Construction joints are indicated by a heavy unbroken line labeled "construction joint." (para 2-15,**b**)
17. The minimum thickness of a brick bearing wall for a large structure is 12 inches; whereas minimum thickness for smaller buildings is 8 inches. (para 2-17,**a**(1))
18. The symbol is that for a channel shape. (a) is an angle, (b) is a channel, (c) is an I-beam, and (d) is a wide-flange shape. (para 2-18,**a**(5)) (fig 2-9)
19. A thread specification of 1/2-13NC-2 would mean the thread has a major diameter of 1/2 inch, 13 threads per inch, National Coarse series, and a class fit of 2. If the thread were left-hand, the symbol LH would follow the class fit; however, the absence of any symbol indicates that the bolt has a right-hand thread. (para 2-19,**a**)
20. The points where working lines intersect are referred to as working points. (para 2-20,**a**(1))

LESSON 3 ANSWERS TO SELF TEST EXERCISES

1. Note 6 of the general notes refers you to drawing number 84-13 for details of the filter bed. (para 3-2) (fig 3-1)
2. The water tank, labeled "WTK 1," is located at the top center of the layout. The supply line is designated by a note reading "assumed 1,000' to supply," and the pipe size of 4 inches is noted next to this line. (para 3-3) (fig 3-2)
3. The utility building -8, labeled "UTL 8," is located in the lower right-hand corner of the lay-out. By measuring the 2-inch line leading from the 4-inch main and then using the graphic scale, a distance of 215 feet is arrived at. (para 3-3) (fig 3-2)
4. Acid- and/or water-carrying pipes are represented by solid or dashed lines. (para 3-6,a)
5. Figure 3-6 shows pipe fitting symbols. (a) is an eccentric reducer, (b) is a concentric reducer fitting, (c) is a screwed union, and (d) is a flanged union. (para 3-6,b) (fig 3-6)
6. Figure 3-7 lists valve symbols. (a) is the pan symbol for a straight or angled gate valve, (b) is the symbol for an angled check valve, (c) is the elevation symbol for an angled gate valve, and (d) is the elevation symbol for an angled globe valve. (para 3-6,c) (fig 3-7)
7. The note to the left of the sand filter specified the spacing as 5 to 10 feet. (para 3-14,b) (fig 3-18)
8.

Inlet of septic tank is 1 + 64.6	164.6	feet
Manhole No. 2 is 1 + 14.6	<u>114.6</u>	feet
Horizontal distance	50	feet

(para 3-14,c) (fig 3-18)
9.

Reference elevation for manhole No. 2	= - 192.05 feet
Reference elevation for septic tank inlet	- <u>192.60</u> feet
Vertical distance	0.45 feet

(para 3-14,c) (fig 3-23)
10. 200 feet is a convenient reference point. It is not necessarily the actual elevation of floors nor does it represent the depth of the sewerage system. (para 3-14,c) (fig 3-23)
11. Figure 3-25 shows various symbols for electrical distribution equipment. (a) is the symbol for an air circuit breaker, (b) is the symbol for an oil circuit breaker, (c) represents a fuse, and (d) is a capacitor. (para 3-17) (fig 3-25)
12. The connections for the primary and secondary wires are represented by black squares. Figure A-10 of the appendix shows this symbol to be that for a cable connector. (para 3-18) (fig A-10, app A)
13. The transformers are noted as 60 cycle. A 50-amp cutout is required. The guy wire is 3/8 inch. The lightning arrester is pellet type. (para 3-19,b) (fig 3-30)
14. An "interior wiring system" is the installation in a building which distributes electrical energy. The "electrical distribution system" includes outside power lines and equipment for multibuilding installations. (para 3-20)

15. The nomenclature of a building wiring system is divided into two principal parts according to function as follows: (a) building feeders and subfeeders, and (b) branches or branch circuits. (para 3-21,**a, b**)
16. Figure 3-32 shows several symbols for electrical fixtures. (a) is a single receptacle outlet, (b) is a single floor outlet, (c) is a fluorescent light fixture, and (d) represents a wall outlet for a light. (para 3-22,**b**) (fig 3-32)
17. The incoming service line symbol, shown leading to the circuit breaker panels at the bottom of the plan, indicates three #8 service lines. (para 3-23,**a**) (fig 3-33)
18. Circuit A4 consists of eight lights on the right-hand bank of the storeroom. Electrical notes specify that, unless otherwise noted on plan, all lamps are to be 100 watts. Therefore, total load on circuit A4 is $(8 \text{ lamps}) \times (100 \text{ watts per lamp}) = 800 \text{ watts}$. (para 3-23,**a**) (fig -33)
19. All circuits connected to circuit breaker "A" are labeled "A" and the number of the circuit follows the letter. Circuit "A6" is the highest number in the "A" category; therefore, six circuits are connected. (para 3-23,**a**) (fig 3-33)
20. The double arrowhead is the symbol for the branch circuit home run to panel board as shown in figure 3-31. It means that no connections are made between this point and the breaker panel. Correct reply is none. (para 3-27,**a**) (fig 3-31, 3-33)

LESSON 4 ANSWERS TO SELF TEST EXERCISES

1. In a one-pipe system, hot water is pumped through at least one main (depending on the number of circuits) and passes through each radiator in turn. Since the water is at a lower temperature at the last radiator in a given circuit, the (c) last radiator in circuit will be larger than the first radiator in order to have the same heat transfer. (para 4-2,a)
2. In a two-pipe system the water is pumped through at least one main, direct to each radiator. The radiators will generally be the same size. The (d) cool water leaving radiators returns to the heater through separate return piping. (para 4-2,b)
3. Figure 4-8 shows that the water leaving the hot-water heating boiler travels in two directions, thus forming two circuits. Since each circuit requires a hot-water return line, two lines are needed. (para 4-2,c) (fig 4-8)
4. The heating system piping is specified as 1 inch. (para 4-2,c) (fig 4-8)
5. An attempt is made to locate furnaces centrally so that duct lengths will be equalized. (para 4-3,b)
6. Figure 4-1 lists heating piping symbols and shows (a) to be make-up water, (b) medium pressure return, (c) hot-water heating return, and (d) a medium pressure steam line. (para 4-1,c) (fig 4-1)
7. Figure 4-2 lists various heating symbols. (a) is a thermostatic trap, (b) is a float and thermostatic trap, (c) is an exhaust or return register, and (d) is a supply register. (para 4-3,a) (fig 4-2)
8. Figure 4-10 illustrates several duct connections. (a) is a horizontal elbow, (b) is a vertical elbow, (c) is a straight tee, and (d) is a split tee. (para 4-3,b) (fig 4-10)
9. The control subsystem consists of the compressor motor, fan motor, starting and running circuit, relay, pressure or temperature control switch, and thermostat. (para 4-5)
10. The air path includes the ductwork, grills, dampers, and screens. (para 4-5)
11. The duct connecting the sick call room with the medical office is shown as a 12 x 8. (para 4-5) (fig 4-14)
12. Note 9 specifies that heating coils in AC units are to operate at 30 psi per steam. (para 4-6) (fig 4-14)
13. The legend explains that a mercury type cooling thermostat will be represented by the abbreviation TC. This abbreviation is found in the operating room, dental officer's office, and sick call room; therefore, three cooling thermostats are specified. (para 4-6) (fig 4-14)
14. Note C of figure 4-17 shows the capacity for each compressor in a 100-foot building to be 40,000 BTU. (para 4-10) (fig 4-17)
15. For a 52-foot warehouse, one unit cooler is required, whereas two unit coolers will be needed If a 100-foot warehouse is constructed. (para 4-10) (fig 4-17)

LESSON 5 ANSWERS TO SELF TEST EXERCISES

1. The quantities of items such as cement, nails, and scaffolding are generally arrived at by estimate, whereas pieces of lumber used for framing (c) would be calculated by a takeoff from the framing drawing. (para 5-2,a)
2. Major groups of construction are assigned a number which will be listed under the column heading of section number. (para 5-2,d) (fig 5-2)
3. The specifications of individual items will be described in detail in the item column. (para 5-4,b) (fig 5-2)
4. The specification for 10 pieces of 2 x 4, 8 feet in length, will appear in a bill of materials as follows: The item will be assigned an item number. The description 2 x 4 -8ft will appear in the "item" column. The abbreviation for pieces (PCS) will appear in the "unit" column and the number 10 will be listed under the "quantities required" column. (para 5-4,b) (fig 5-2)
5. Table 2-1, lesson 2, lists the actual dimensions of a piece of 1" x 6" dressed lumber as 3/4" x 5 1/2". The width of the tent floor is 8' 10" or 106". Assuming a 15-percent waste factor, the correct calculation is listed as choice b: 106" divided by 5 1/2" /.85, or 23 pieces of lumber 10 feet long. (para 5-4) (table 2-1) (fig 5-3)
6. Assuming that all sleepers are correctly cut to an 8' 10" length (no waste factor), one 10-foot board will be needed for each sleeper; thus six pieces will be required. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
7. Each side brace is 4' 10" long. With proper cutting, two braces can be made from each 10-foot length of 1 x 6. Since four braces are required, two pieces of 1 x 6-10 ft would have to be ordered. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
8. Each skirt board is 9' 2" long; therefore, a 10-foot length of 1 x 6 is needed for each skirt board. As shown on the drawing, four skirt boards are specified. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
9. The two top rails are each 9' 2" long, so two 2 x 4-10 ft are needed. Since the four corner uprights are each 5' 1" long, four more 2 x 4-10 ft are needed. When these four pieces are cut to a proper length of 5' 1", four pieces of length 4' 11" will remain. Two of these four pieces can be cut to a length of 3' 7" and used as the center uprights. Therefore, two 2 x 4-10 ft for the top rails and four 2 x 4-10 ft for the uprights adds to a total of six 2 x 4-10 ft. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)
10. With proper cutting, four brace stakes, each 2' 4" in length for a total of 9' 4", can be made from one 2 x 4-10 ft. (para 5-4) (fig 5-3)